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Editor's Page

Social Studies in Wartime

AMERICAN schools have been prompt to recognize and to respond to new needs arising from the war. The response is, of course, less conspicuous and tangible than is the training of armed forces or the production of war goods, but it is by no means unimportant. For civilian morale is a major concern in what is called "total war," and informed and matured public opinion is especially vital in a democracy in time of national crisis.

Morale is not, obviously enough, the exclusive concern of education, much less of social studies teaching. Newspapers and magazines, movies and the radio, the clergy and leaders in public life, and all who work in the schools mold opinions and attitudes and influence morale. But the schools, and especially social studies classes, can coordinate the work of these agencies and leaders for a large section of the population, can indirectly influence other sections, and can perform some services of immediate and future value that would otherwise be neglected.

PUBLIC schools could, of course, follow the pattern of state education in totalitarian countries. They could be made sounding boards for government propaganda, characterized by distorted history, horror stories, and constant use of the symbols of patriotism and of emotional appeals. They could be made agencies for the preliminary military training of youth. Teachers and students could be forced or urged into various forms of war work—the sale of

war bonds, the collection of relief funds, the advancement of efforts to modify habits of consumption of food and other commodities, or even assistance in guarding against some forms of subversive activities.

Some of these policies are inappropriate in a democracy which is engaged in an effort to preserve democracy; others are characteristic of a more advanced or more desperate stage of war than we have now reached. But other and less dramatic responses have been made in many schools.

MOST widespread has been the study of the issues and events of the war, chiefly in current-events classes, where attention has often been given to the conflicting claims and the censorships of the warring nations and to the division of opinion in this country. So too there has been opportunity for consideration of the aims of the totalitarian powers and of the democracies, and of our own national interests and policies. Some understanding of the nature of current fighting methods and weapons, of the importance of raw materials and resources, and of the effects of the war on the populations both in and out of the war area is inescapable in the study of current events. Information and discussion about the war are helping to educate a few who, if the war continues even a short time, may fight in it, and to educate many who, in any case, will be affected by the outcome of the war and the terms of the peace, by the taxes which must pay for our war effort, and by the settlement of domestic issues created or intensified by the war.

SOME modifications of the curriculum have resulted from the war. Our long neglect of South America, Central America, and Canada is being somewhat corrected, and increased attention is being paid to the Far East. Organization for peaceful international cooperation, which now unhappily appears idealistic and premature, receives less attention, while military history is perhaps destined for restoration to our history courses.

Most conspicuous and important of all is our realization of the need for teaching the nature, merits, and responsibilities of democracy. We have found that none of these understandings, which we have been taking for granted, are absorbed by merely living in a democracy, or necessarily grasped through familiarity with the facts of history, that young Americans have been more conscious of their privileges than of their responsibilities, and that greater opportunity for the practice of democracy in school life seems necessary.

Greater attention to the history of democracy—to the extension of the franchise, to the establishment of civil liberties, to the achievement of representative and responsible government, to gains in social and economic democracy—can readily be provided, chiefly in social studies classes. Already many supplementary readings, visual, and auditory materials for such study have been issued, and textbooks and courses of study are giving more space to these topics.

The establishment of democratic procedures in the schools is a slower and more difficult process, by no means confined to social studies classes, though traditionally social studies teachers have often been given special responsibility in such aspects as student government.

NO doubt if most teachers of social studies were asked how the war has affected their teaching, the reply would be in terms of increased attention to current events, to Pan-American and Far Eastern

relations, and to the teaching of democracy. But many teachers are also conscious of the necessity for preparation for peace. That involves not only consideration of the kind of international organization that we want, though that is urgently important, but also of adjustment to post-war conditions.

The demobilization both of large numbers from our armed forces and of some sections, at least, of our war industries will, even with the most careful planning, bring much unemployment. If, as Floyd Reeves of the American Youth Commission has pointed out, ex-servicemen are given preference, as is proper, the burden of unemployment will fall heavily on youth. Agencies like the NYA, the CCC, and the WPA can no doubt relieve the strain in part, and possibly, as E. George Payne prophesies in the October issue of the *Journal of Educational Sociology*,

the period of education will be a much longer one and will, perhaps, extend to the age of twenty-five years for all youth. . . . This will probably mean that a part of this period of education will be spent in the social world, in industry, in commerce, and even in camps, where people will learn to live together and plan for a better world. It must provide the opportunity for youth to see clearly where he is going, his future career and the contribution he will make to his fellow man through his career and activity. . . ."

But the process of adjustment should not be postponed until the emergency engulfs us. Just as consideration of the issues and needs of the war is necessary to adjustment of individuals in a democracy to the war and to their war responsibilities, so consideration of the conditions and strains of the peace is necessary to post-war adjustments. That is especially true if disillusionment and frustration are not to menace that democracy for the preservation of which our war effort is being made.

All the resources of our society are needed in working out solutions for the problems of morale both in wartime and in

the peace to follow, but so far as youth is concerned, teachers of the social studies occupy a position of special opportunity and of almost overwhelming responsibility. A start, at least, has been made on the problems of the war. More needs to be done, and will be done, with them. But teachers and associations of teachers need also to give attention to the problems of peace which the war is creating or accentuating.

European history courses can give attention to the effects of war on government, economy, and morale in ancient Greece and Rome, in the middle ages, and in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. Similarly in American history the Critical Period, Reconstruction, and the depression following the first World War can be considered. The relation of post-war misery and the emergence of dictatorships can be traced. Programs for reducing such misery can be studied and evaluated. The merits and weaknesses of various types of organization for maintaining peace and order—from repression and military occupation to the League of Nations and Union Now—can be studied. Beyond these lie possibilities for vocational and personal guidance, and for efforts, needed in all times, to educate for life in a world that is always changing.

ERLING M. HUNT

Elementary Education Too Soft?

[The following rejoinder to Professor Chillrud's article, published in October, comes from a professor of education, also director of elementary education, in the Indiana State Teachers College at Terre Haute.—Editor]

To the Editor:

I should like to protest the article "Is Our Elementary Education Too Soft?"

which appeared in the October issue of *Social Education*. The title as well as several statements about children's interests depreciate the many fine things that are being done in our elementary schools. Some of the statements may apply to a few scattered classrooms and to a small group of people who are scurrying around for something new and flashy in the way of theory and practice.

However, the large group of well-prepared, sincere elementary teachers who are well-grounded in child psychology and who understand children and the best learning situation from daily contact with them in the classroom are *not* making education soft. In fact, I believe the best teaching is done at the elementary level and that the elementary school has met the challenge of the changing environment and the absence of socially useful work for young children due to (1) the many recent and elaborate studies of child development, (2) the improved systematic teaching techniques that have resulted from these studies, and (3) the acceptance of change and the adoption of these improved procedures by people really interested in good elementary education.

Lee and Lee in *The Child and His Curriculum* have discussed particularly well the child's purposes and interests (also special interests) as basic factors in the learning process. Proper guidance of children's interests and purposes plus the deepening and broadening of these interests will foster and build effective study and work habits rather than "corrupt," "confuse," and tend "to abolish the concept of work." This is what good teachers have done for all time, even those who have never heard of "progressive education."

JOY M. LACEY

Research in the Social Sciences: Its Significance for General Education

Robert Redfield

AFABLE, which Aesop somehow neglected to record, tells of a hen who was making an effort to instruct her chicks about their future sources of food supply while she and they were balanced precariously on a chicken coop which was being carried down a river by a flood. It was a long time since the hen had studied the forests on the bank and the account she was giving her chicks of forest resources was none too good. So she called to a wise owl on the bank for help. "You know the woods, oh owl, for you stay in this forest and study it," said the hen, "will you not tell me what to teach my chicks about life in the forest?" But the owl had overheard what the hen had been telling the chicks about the forest as she came along, and he thought it was scientifically inaccurate and superficial. Besides, he was just then very busy completing a monograph on the incidence of beetle larvae in acorns. So he pretended he had not heard the hen. The hen, turned back upon herself, proceeded as well as she could to prepare and put into effect

an instruction unit on the food resources of oak forests, meanwhile struggling to keep the chicks from falling off the chicken coop. The chicks took the instruction very well, and later the chicken coop stopped at a point far downstream and the chicks all went ashore—to begin their adult lives in a treeless meadow.

The problems of the teaching of social science in connection with general education are chiefly two: how to get the owls to help the hens and the hens to make use of what they learn from the owls; and how to take account of the fact that the chicken coop is constantly being carried along the current of events. The first problem is chiefly one of effective organization. Effective organization will help to solve the second problem too, but only if it rests upon a sound philosophy of general education and an understanding of the place of social science in general education. The first problem I will here merely state, and then will applaud some recent steps taken to deal with it. To the second problem I can hope to contribute only my own views as to what there is in social science that is most significant for a general education.

Must social studies teaching in the school lag far behind social science research in the universities? Can citizens learn how to meet the complicated and changing problems of the present day? These questions were considered by the dean of the Division of Social Sciences, University of Chicago, at a conference of social studies teachers held at the University last July.

THE need for closer collaboration between social scientists and teachers of the social studies arises from a number of circumstances. Among these is the demand that has come from educators for an education that deals with contemporary social life. This demand was early filled by a trivial sort of instruction in current events. More recently the tendency has been to organize instruction in the social studies

around social problems, that is, around topics of wide current practical importance to our citizens. In the meantime, the more theoretical social sciences, emphasizing research, have grown in power and competence in the universities, and have exerted some influence on the curriculum of the secondary schools and junior colleges. But what little science of government, economics, and sociology has entered the intermediate educational institutions has got there by a sort of osmosis through the cell-walls of school and college.

There has been no organization of social scientist and teacher to deal with the problem. Indeed, the collective wills and interests of the two groups have remained diverse. The social scientists are, on the whole, disinterested in general education, and seldom take pains to develop secondary school teachers. The teachers are rarely specialists in those frontiers of social science where new knowledge is won. To the teacher, the social scientist is inaccessible, uncooperative, and ignorant of the problems of teaching. To the social scientist, the teacher of the social studies is confused, superficial, and inclined to debase the currency of science. The teacher continues to write textbooks for the social studies which the social scientist condemns, while the social scientist continues to write monographs which the teacher can hardly read.

The teacher and the social scientist will come to develop common interests in the problem of the social studies and adequate ways to deal with it as they work together on enterprises connected with the problem. The series of meetings which opens today on this campus is one such enterprise. It is worthy of the support of everyone interested in the social sciences or in general education. Another group of enterprises wherein social scientist and teacher jointly work upon the problem exists in the orientation and survey courses which are playing such a growing part in the curricula of junior colleges. And still another opportunity for

cooperation to the mutual benefit of both is provided by the public appetite for pamphlets, panel discussions, and radio programs on social questions.

A DIRECT attack upon the problem was initiated by the General Education Board in the spring of 1939 when it invited a group of social scientists interested in problems of social science education to meet with a few experts in the field of social science education to discuss the possibilities of improvement in the teaching of the social studies. There resulted a printed document in which it was attempted to define the nature of a social problem and to illustrate the sort of contributions to general education which social scientists might make by formulating three sample social problems for the use of the teacher. In a second edition, this document was revised so as to retain only one of the three specific problems earlier chosen, that dealing with housing. The objective of the writers of the document was to show teachers of the social studies how social scientists of today define, analyze, and study a topic of scientific research that is also a problem for the citizen. The publication was used in and subject to criticism by a number of social science workshops. The entire enterprise was truly a collaboration between teacher and research worker, for it was the teacher who required that social science knowledge be given in manageable units for consumption by the teachers, and that the units coincide with problems of practical concern to the individual, while it was the social scientist who wrote out the definition of the problem and showed how it was not merely a problem of action but a problem for scientific study.

The history and outcome of this enterprise is probably well-known to most of you. You no doubt know that it was followed by action taken jointly by the National Association of Secondary-School Principals and the National Council for the Social

Studies leading to the preparation of a series of what are now called "resource units" to be used by teachers in improving instruction in social science fields.¹ These resource units are now being prepared under a grant from the General Education Board. They will later be tested in the schools. They will differ from teaching aids now issued by various publicity and pressure groups in that they will not attempt to indoctrinate any point of view. They will not be written to promote international peace or safe automobile driving or anything at all except intelligent understanding. They will differ from instruction units now published for the use of progressive schools chiefly in the fact that they will be prepared by leading scientists in the fields in which fall the topics selected. And they will emphasize—at least I hope they will emphasize—the characteristics of the problems selected that make them scientific problems. The analysis will make clear to the teacher and through him to the pupil how the social scientist objectifies that problem, looks all around it, and shapes methods for getting better understanding of it. The manuscript written by the research scientist will then be submitted to specialists in education for additional implementation to make them of the greatest possible use to teachers.

It really seems as if something is being done to bring the owls to the help of the hard-pressed hens. If this undertaking prospers, and is followed by others like it, a great deal of what the owls know about acorns and other such subjects will be communicated to the hens, and, after proper translation into simplified clucking which I am told is appropriate to chicks, will reach the chicks.

BUT meantime the chicken coop is going on down the river. Will there be any acorns when the chicks go ashore? Writing

¹ See Paul B. Jacobson, "Resource Units for Teachers," *Social Education*, November, 1941.

about the problem of bringing social science knowledge to teachers in the intermediate schools, Professor Erling M. Hunt says that it "is further complicated by the unceasing change in subject matter to be taught due to new discoveries of scholars and research workers and to new developments in the political, economic, and social scene. Even if it were possible to prepare teachers for the social studies, they could not possibly keep abreast of new developments without help from specialists and popularizers."² I will add my opinion that it will be difficult to keep abreast even with all the help they can get, and will add my advice that they do not try too hard to keep abreast in all subjects of the degree of particularity represented by acorns.

Any list of social problems which is selected will have to be revised at intervals that will not be very long. The list recently made in connection with the writing of resource units about which I have just been speaking begins with Democracy and Dictatorship and ends with Agriculture. It is certainly a timely list. It includes also American Defense and Recreation. It is a safe guess that as American Defense grows as a topic of current importance, that part of the subject of Recreation which deals with the use of leisure time is likely to decline in importance. And what the next five years are likely to do with the subject of Consumer Problems it would take a hardier prophet than I to venture to say. As there will certainly be consumers in 1946, there will be consumer problems; but will they be the same as face consumers today?

AT LAST I find myself confronting the subject that was assigned to me to discuss. What is the significance of social science research to a general education? I offer an answer that I believe simplifies the prob-

² *Contemporary Social Problems*, edited by Louis Wirth (Chicago: Univ. of Chicago Press, 2nd ed., 1940), p. vi.

lem presented by the fact that we can't stop the chicken coop from going on down the river. I think that problem is only in lesser part met by the perfection of organizations which more promptly communicate to the teacher the results of research done by the expert. Such organizations will take advantage of the *particular* results of social science research. But a more radical attack upon the problem, in my opinion, comes about when there is clarification of the *general* significance of social science research for general education. I say that the primary significance of social science research for general education lies in the nature of social science research itself, as that method is applicable to any and all topics. I say that it is more important for teacher and pupil to understand that a social problem can be also a scientific problem, and what universal considerations attend the scientific way to attack it, than it is for them to be up to date on any chosen list of timely topics. I say that it is better for the chicks to understand that one can get objective, generalized, verifiable knowledge of either meadow or forest than it is for them to be up to the minute on what the owl has found out about acorns.

I am not saying that every citizen should be made a social scientist. Such a suggestion would be ridiculous. I am merely saying that one of the elements of a modern general education is understanding of what is involved when one studies a social problem scientifically, just as understanding of the great forms of literary expression, or of the essential nature of matter and life, is a part of a modern general education.

I am not saying that we should abandon instruction in the form of units organized around practical problems of current interest. That method should be retained, because those subjects are both interesting and important. The demand will continue that we teach our young people about the problems of unemployment and public revenue and good government; and it is a desirable

thing that they learn about these things. I am merely giving my opinion that there is something in the teaching of the social studies that is more important than having the right topics and more important than including in their treatment all the most recent knowledge on the field. It is more important that the nature of social science, its powers and limitations, be understood. This seems to me worth declaring because I do not believe that social problems are, on the whole, taught in high schools and junior colleges as scientific problems. I think they are chiefly taught to give information, or to awaken a social conscience, or to indoctrinate some point of view approved by some teacher's college committee or by public opinion. However desirable it may be to inform and to indoctrinate, neither information nor indoctrination is the contribution of social science research to a general education.

A GENERAL education differs from a professional or a vocational education in that it is general. It is concerned with those aspects of knowledge which are relevant to all men and women and to many situations and experiences. The aspects of social science research which have this general characteristic are recognizable in any well-conducted piece of social science research, whether it deal with housing, population, business cycles, or the religious beliefs of the Navajo Indians. I will attempt to state some of them.

It is part of a general education to understand, in the first place, that there is a social science as distinct from common sense knowledge about society and as distinct from social reform. Every educated person should know that to a great extent society can be studied objectively and systematically, as can starfish, or the action of glaciers. One can get impersonal, organized, verifiable knowledge about housing, crime, and race relations, as one can get such knowledge about any other phenomena of nature.

An educated person will know how to distinguish the scientific way of attacking a social problem from those ways of attacking it which are more generally practiced around him. He will understand that in a great many instances people do something about a social problem because they feel badly about it rather than because they understand it, and that what they do corresponds with their feelings rather than with the facts underlying the problem. He will understand that this is true, whether the action taken be to write a letter to the newspapers, to pass a law, or to demand changes in the school curriculum. It is a part of general education to understand that scientific knowledge is different from feeling strongly about something and from common sense knowledge, and that it is a more secure basis for social action than either.

The successful teacher of the social studies will make clear to his pupils that there is a difference between the analysis of processes, which are matters of efficiency, and other objective judgments. The citizen must know what are his values, and he should understand how to act so as to protect or realize them. The uneducated person confuses values and processes, ends and means; a good education in social science will help to keep them distinct.

As a part of this understanding, the educated man or woman will have been taught that a social problem is not a simple thing. Social problems are closely intermeshed with one another. If one makes a beginning with the problem of housing, one finds that it is only one aspect of the larger problem of national insecurity. It is also related to the problem of the national income and to that of the national health. The solutions given in the form of new housing projects or in zoning laws encounter the problems of racial intolerance. It follows from this that a social problem does not mean the same thing to everybody. A striking feature of that memorandum on housing which was

recently prepared as a first experimental resource unit for teachers of the social studies occurs in the introductory pages where it is pointed out that the problem of housing looks very differently to laymen, land-owners, builders, tax officials and city planners, and where it is shown that full understanding of the problem depends upon special scientific knowledge of economists, sociologists, and students of government. The contribution of social science research to a general education is not made use of when a social problem is presented to young people as if it existed with simple reference to some social ideal. It is not made use of if the problem is presented as if all one had to do was to take note of the social injustice attending the present state of things. That is not functional education; it does not prepare the young person for life.

A FURTHER contribution which social science research can make to general education is the understanding that although social science is like physical or biological science in that it is objective, systematic description of the world around us, it differs from physical and biological science in that all the facts and all the problems are controversial. The social scientist is studying, chiefly, to put it strongly, himself, and one can not help feeling and caring about oneself. We, as human beings, care about the institutions and social problems which the social scientist studies. Therefore it is harder for the social scientist to maintain objectivity than it is for the physicist, and it is harder for Society, with a capital "S," to keep from interfering with the social scientist than with the physicist. This is one of the elements of understanding of social science research which belongs in a general education. If social problems are presented by the teacher of the social studies so as to communicate this general knowledge of the nature of social science it will be made clear to the learner that the mere facts of social science lie within a realm of controversy

and prejudice. As Professor Wirth has pointed out,³ even the number of people living in a given city of the United States is a controversial matter in the sense that if the city has been losing population the Chamber of Commerce will not want the fact to get abroad. The number of people unemployed in this country is a controversial fact first in the sense that various interest groups care as to what criterion is selected for determining who is unemployed, and second because even if it is decided who are unemployed various groups will interpret the fact according to their interests. For some employers there will be just enough unemployed to assure a labor reserve, while for other of our citizens these same unemployed constitute a problem of providing relief.

At the same time the educated man or woman will understand that this special difficulty under which the social scientist labors has its compensation in a special advantage enjoyed by the social scientist, and understanding of the nature of social science research is not complete until another general characteristic of it is recognized. It is a peculiarity of the scientific method as applied to man in society that the investigator can get a more intimate knowledge of his subject matter than can the physicist of his, just because he is a part of it. The physical scientist learns of his subject matter only as caliper and scales can tell him about it. The social scientist can ask questions of his subject matter and get answers, and he can project his own humanity imaginatively into the subject matter and so increase his understanding of it. The contribution of social science research to a general education is provided in part by an understanding of the advantages and the dangers of this essential characteristic of social science research. The social scientist

does not abolish his own prejudices any more than he abolishes his own human nature. But he controls prejudice by making it explicit. So too he develops controlled use of his human insights. It is more important to a general education that the individual knows that there is a problem of using and controlling the human faculty of insight as a scientific instrument than that he know the latest facts with regard to any problem studied by that method.

I say again that the primary significance of social science research for a general education lies in the nature of social science. The nature of social science can not be taught in abstract terms. It is conveniently and appropriately taught in connection with particular social problems. I think that it can also be taught by direct participation of teacher—and ultimately of the young student too—in elementary sorts of social science research. The way to do this is pointed out to us by the recent development of the workshop as a method of instruction of teachers and other mature people. When Jones looks at the social world immediately around him, and at the problems with which Jones has to deal, objectively, and relates these to larger and more theoretical considerations, then Jones learns something about social science. The future teaching of social science will include opportunities for Jones, while he is still a pupil in a secondary school, to get some direct understanding of how social facts are collected and ordered in the elementary aspects of social science method. The community around the school is at hand, ready to be considered from the point of view of the social scientist, and it will be used more systematically than it is now being used in the future teaching of the social studies. This is one reason for the significance of the topic to which today's program is devoted.

In so far as the teaching of social problems, whether by book or by direct obser-

³ In "Biases in Education for Business," *Business Education for What?* Proceedings of the University of Chicago Conference on Business Education (Chicago: Univ. of Chicago Press, 1940), p. 2.

vation of social life, contributes to the fundamental and lasting broadening of knowledge and intelligence which we call a general education, it will show how social science, rather than doctrine, or wishful thinking, or common sense, deals with those problems. It will show that social problems have many sides and are inter-related with one another. It will show how these difficulties are surmounted. It will make clear that there are ways of making social knowledge verifiable. It will show something of the methods of proof used in establishing social facts. It will develop respect for those conclusions in the realm of the social which depend upon the consensus

of the competent, and it will do this by showing the methods by which these competent ones arrive at consensus. If the teachers of the social studies are able to communicate some of these matters to the young, it will not matter much if the list of problems which they teach is not perfect, or if their knowledge of the results of particular research in particular fields is not up to date. It will not then be so serious a matter if the chicken coop comes ashore in a meadow instead of a forest. For then the young person will have learned what there is to know about social science which will help him as an adult citizen under any circumstances of life.

With the mechanization and urbanization of economy, the American people confronted social conditions foreign to their earlier experience, and they made new demands upon the schools. Whether it was a matter of moral unrest among youth, crime, disease, or inebriety, they turned to the schools for aid, and imposed upon them obligations once assumed by the family and business and agriculture. It is scarcely going beyond the mark to say that American adults, somewhat stunned and baffled by the difficulties which their own activities had created, began to shift to the public schools the burdens of coping with them. The war and the depression merely underlined these problems. And there is no ground in experience for believing that a return to what is called prosperity will automatically solve them or remove them from consideration. They had been long in development. They had long carried with them intellectual, moral, and social obligations of the most perplexing nature. Efforts to deal with them now call for great resources of mind and spirit. The challenges they present are in truth so fundamental as to be startling. Their very urgency is appalling to educators who fearlessly and courageously face the realities of contemporary life. (Educational Policies Commission, *The Unique Function of Education in American Democracy*. Washington: National Education Association, 1937, p. 3ff.)

Some Economic Implications of the 1940 Population Census Returns

Philip M. Hauser

ALTHOUGH most of the huge mass of statistics emanating from the Sixteenth Decennial Census of Population is still to be compiled, the data which has been released to date make it possible to discern many significant and far-reaching population changes which have occurred in this country since 1930. It is in order, as a preliminary to a discussion of the implications of some of these changes, briefly to summarize the facts which are known to date.

POPULATION GROWTH

DURING the past ten years, the population of the United States has increased from 122,775,000 to 131,669,000. This represents an increase of 8,894,000, or 7.2 per cent, a rate of increase less than one-half that shown in any previous decade since the first census in 1790. The rapid decrease in population growth can be attributed to the declining birth rate and the virtual cessa-

tion of foreign immigration. During the past decade, all of the increase in the population of the nation stemmed from the excess of births over deaths. In fact, for the first time in the history of the country, the number of emigrants during an intercensal period was greater than the number of immigrants (by approximately 47,000). These population changes are in marked contrast with the changes in the decade 1920 to 1930, when the population increased by 16.1 per cent and when about one-fifth of the population increase of 17,000,000 persons was attributable to immigration.

Urban-rural growth. The urban population, that is, the population residing in incorporated places of 2,500 inhabitants or more, increased by 7.9 per cent during the decade, while the rural population, including persons residing in rural non-farm and rural-farm areas, increased by 6.4 per cent. Thus, on April 1, 1940, the urban population formed 56.5 per cent of the total population of the United States, as compared with 56.2 per cent in 1930. The import of these figures becomes apparent when it is recalled that during the 100 years from 1790 to 1890, the average decennial rate of growth of the urban population was 60.7 per cent, as contrasted with an average decennial rate of rural population growth of 27.3 per cent; and that in the period from 1890 to 1930, the average decennial increase in the population of cities was 33.0 per cent, as contrasted with 7.2 per cent in the rural population. In the decade just past, the rate of population growth of the country as a whole was less than half that between 1920

Population trends have already affected school enrollments, have lengthened the period of dependency of youth, and have raised urgent questions concerning the security of the old. The Assistant Chief Statistician for Population in the Bureau of the Census summarizes some findings of the latest census and points out some implications of the figures for American capital, labor, and economic enterprise, and for our military strength.

and 1930; but the rate of increase in urban population was less than one-third that of the preceding decade, while the rate of growth of rural population actually increased.

Of considerable interest are the rates of growth of the component parts of the rural population. The rural-farm population, comprising persons resident on farms, remained practically stationary during the decade, while the rural non-farm population, comprising persons outside of incorporated places of 2,500 inhabitants or more who did not live on farms, increased by 14.5 per cent during the decade. During the decade 1920 to 1930, the urban population increased most rapidly, the rural non-farm population at a slower rate, while the rural-farm population decreased (by 3.8 per cent). The marked decline in the rural-farm-to-city movement during the past ten years is undoubtedly attributable to the decreased employment opportunities in urban areas.

COMPOSITION OF THE POPULATION

Age. The median age of the population of the United States increased from 26.4 years in 1930 to 29.0 years in 1940. This is in keeping with the expectations of population students who, as a result of the declining birth rate, have been predicting that the population of the United States will continue to age. In fact, the median age of the population has been continuously increasing from the first date for which the age distribution of the entire population was available, 1820, at which time the median age was 16.7 years.

Particularly striking is the rapid increase in the number of persons 65 years and over. Persons in this age class increased from 6,634,000 in 1930 to 8,956,000 in 1940, an increase of 35 per cent as contrasted with an increase of 7.2 per cent in the total population. Persons 65 years of age and over constituted 6.8 per cent of the 1940 population as compared with 5.4 per cent in 1930.

On the other hand, the number of persons under 20 years of age actually declined

from 47,609,000 in 1930 to 45,461,000 in 1940, a decrease of 4.5 per cent. In consequence, only 34.5 per cent of the population was under 20 years of age in 1940 as compared with 38.8 per cent in 1930.

Sex. In contrast with the situation in foreign countries in which, largely as a result of wars and emigration, the number of females exceeds the number of males, the number of males has exceeded the number of females throughout the history of this country. The sex ratio (number of males per 100 females) reached its peak in 1910, at which time it was 106.6, reflecting heavy waves of foreign immigration which were predominantly male. Since that time, however, the sex ratio has been steadily declining. In 1940 there were only 101.1 males in the population for every 100 females, as compared with 102.5 in 1930.

Color. The number of non-white persons in the United States increased from 12,488,000 in 1930 to 13,456,000 in 1940, or 7.7 per cent. Although this represents a slightly faster rate of growth than that of the white population, 7.2 per cent, the proportion of non-whites in 1940 remained the same as that in 1930, 10.2 per cent. The greatest increase in the non-white population occurred in urban areas where the rate of increase was 19.6 per cent as compared with 6.9 per cent for the white population. The non-white rural-non-farm population increased by 4.8 per cent as compared with 15.5 per cent for the white population, while the non-white rural-farm population declined by 3.9 per cent as compared with an increase of 0.7 per cent in the white population. These and other data make it clear that, in view of the decline in internal migration, there has been a surprisingly large migration of Negroes from southern rural to northern urban areas during the decade.

Net Reproduction. It is clear that sometime during the decade 1930 to 1940, birth rates and death rates changed so as to pass the critical point at which the population would remain stationary. If the 1930 birth and death rates had continued, and there

were no foreign migration, the population of the United States in the long run would more than reproduce its numbers by about 11 per cent per generation. If the birth and death rates immediately preceding the 1940 census continued, however, the population without migration would in the long run fail to maintain its numbers by approximately 4 per cent per generation.

As in 1930, the rural-farm and non-farm areas continue to be the source of potential natural increases, while the cities fall far short of population replacement. Rural-farm areas in 1940 had a net reproduction rate of 36 per cent and rural-non-farm 16 per cent above the maintenance level. In contrast, urban areas had a net reproduction rate which in the long run indicates failure by 24 per cent to maintain their numbers. During the decade the decline in the urban and rural-non-farm areas was about 15 per cent, and in the rural-farm areas about 10 per cent.

Net reproduction rates for the white population, both urban and rural, fell significantly between 1930 and 1940, while the rates for the non-white population changed very little. If birth and death rates immediately preceding the 1940 census were to continue, the white population would eventually decrease at a rate of about 6 per cent per generation, while the non-white population would continue to increase at the rate of about 7 per cent per generation.

It is to be emphasized that, although the net reproduction rate is a valuable index in summarizing existing fertility and mortality conditions, it is not to be interpreted as actually predicting future population growth because it is fairly certain that present fertility and mortality rates will not remain unchanged.

THE FAMILY

THE number of families in the United States increased from 29,905,000 in 1930 to 34,362,000 in 1940, an increase of 16.6 per cent. This is a considerably more rapid rate of increase than that of the total

population, 7.2 per cent. The more rapid increase of families than of persons reflects the decrease in the average size of family, which dropped from 4.1 persons in 1930 to 3.8 in 1940. If there had been no change in the average size of family from 1930 to 1940, the per cent of increase in the number of families would, of course, have been the same as that in population. Instead of the increase of 4,957,000 families which occurred during the decade, the increase would have amounted to only 2,153,000 families. The decline in size of family may thus be said to account for more than one-half of the gain in the number of families between 1930 and 1940. An analysis of the data indicates that the decline in the average size of family during the decade stems largely from the decline in the birth rate, or more specifically, in the decline of the number of persons under 20 years of age, to which reference has already been made.

LABOR FORCE

THE number of workers 14 years old and over in the United States increased from 48,595,000 in 1930 to 52,841,000 in 1940, or by 8.7 per cent. The number of workers 65 years and over, however, declined from 2,205,000 in 1930 to 2,089,000 in 1940, a decline of 5.3 per cent, and the number of workers from 14 to 19 years of age declined from 4,453,000 in 1930 to 3,957,000 in 1940, a decline of 11.1 per cent. Thus, all of the increase in the labor force which occurred during the past decade occurred among workers 20 to 64 years of age. In this age class, the number of workers increased by 11.7 per cent, a rate of increase considerably above that of the total population, which, of course, reflects the aging of the population which has occurred during the past decade. The aging of the population is even more strikingly shown by the fact that the number of persons 14 years old and over increased by 11,872,000, while the total population increased by only 8,894,000.

Part of the changes which have occurred

in the labor force during the decade arise from changes in the definitions used, but it is clear, despite this fact, that basic social and economic factors have resulted in the decline of the number of young and old workers. The decline in the number of young people in the labor force is reflected in the increased school enrollment figures, while the drop in the number of older workers is undoubtedly associated with increased old age assistance and insurance.

It is always necessary to treat male and female workers separately when dealing with the labor force. During the past decade, the proportion of males 14 and over in the labor force declined from 84.1 to 79.0 per cent, while the proportion of females 14 years old and over in the labor force increased from 24.3 to 25.5 per cent. The decline in the proportion of males who were workers reflects in part the differences in definitions to which reference has been made, but it is primarily due to the great decline in the proportion of males under 20 years and over 65 years of age in the labor force. The increase in the proportion of females in the labor force has occurred despite the fact that the proportion of females both under 20 and 65 years of age and over in the labor force has also declined during the decade. The increase in the proportion of women who were workers represents a continuation of the long time trend which has probably been accentuated by economic conditions of the past ten years.

IMPLICATIONS

WHAT has just been said concludes the summary of the facts which are now available concerning population changes during the past decade. A consideration follows of some of the economic implications of these changes.

Capital investment. Without doubt the most significant population change during the past decade is the striking decline in the rate of population growth. If present trends

continue, it is clear that this country is faced with the prospect of a stationary or even a declining population in three or four decades, after reaching a peak of approximately 150,000,000 persons between 1970 and 1980. The effects of this marked decline in the rate of population growth on our social and economic structure must necessarily be profound.

For one thing, the decline in population growth is automatically shutting off an important factor in capital formation. It has been estimated that during the nineteenth century approximately one-half of all capital formation in this nation was attributable to the combined factors of population growth and the development of new territory. With the disappearance of the frontier, with the marked slackening of population growth in the past decade, and with the virtual cessation of population growth in sight, the question may well be raised as to what new opportunities are to be found for capital. The answer to this question is of considerable importance to the nation's economy because capital formation has been essential to the maintenance of full employment and normal business and industrial operations.

A number of answers have been given to this question, some of which assume the continuation of the historical role of private capital in the development and function of our economic order, and some of which assume the relative eclipse of the role of private capital and increased importance of various forms of public investment. Whatever the solution, it is safe to predict that the quest for capital outlets, which has been particularly intense during the past few years, will, short of catastrophic changes that may result from present chaotic world conditions, continue to be a major problem in American economic life.

Industrial and business expansion. As another phase of this problem it may be stated that American business and industry will, as a result of the decline in the rate of popu-

lation growth, be faced with the necessity of making fundamental psychological and economic adjustments. Unlimited expansion as the road to prosperity and business success is a thing of the past. The slogan "bigger and better" must be changed to some such slogan as "sounder and better," with greater emphasis placed on planning of industrial production and business facilities in accordance with effective consumer demand. The American industrialist and businessman can no longer count on the magic palliative of a rapidly growing population to cure his expansionist ills.

Consumer demand. As a concomitant of the declining rate of population growth, the median age of the population will increase, with ever-increasing proportions of older persons and decreasing proportions of younger persons. The effects of an aging population upon our economy are manifold. It may be expected that consumer demand will change with increasing age and call for adjustments in production and marketing practices. For example, an older population will create a greater demand for such items as wheel chairs, canes, and golf clubs, and less demand for perambulators, baseball bats, and elementary-school books. The demand will increase for physicians specialized in degenerative diseases of old age and decrease for obstetricians and pediatricians. It may be expected that pressure for old-age pensions and insurance, which has come to the fore during the past decade, will continue to increase as the number of aged persons increases, and that the burden of younger persons in contributing to the support of the aged will increase.

It is to be observed that the decline in the growth of consumer demand, associated with the declining rate of population growth, is for many commodities more likely to parallel the decline in the rate of growth of families than of persons. Since, as has been indicated, the number of families is still increasing at a faster rate than the number of persons, the contraction of

markets for commodities for which the family is the basic consumer unit will be somewhat more gradual than for commodities for which the individual is the consumer unit.

Labor force. The aging population will call, also, for basic readjustments in the labor market. Increasingly larger proportions of the population will be in the productive ages and the median age of workers in the labor force will increase. To avoid facing a volume of unemployment or underemployment far exceeding anything that this nation has yet experienced, it will be necessary to make adjustments in our economy not only to absorb larger proportions of the population as workers, but also to provide for larger proportions of older workers.

The problem of providing employment for larger proportions of our population is further augmented by the increasing participation of women in the labor market. It is of some interest to observe that the past decade has witnessed an increase in the proportion of women in the labor force above that attributable to long-time trend influences. There is some evidence that part of this increase is due to prolongation of stay in the labor force, that is, to the failure of women during the past decade to drop out of the labor market after age 30, as has been the case in previous decades. This is undoubtedly associated with the decline in marriage rates occasioned by depression, but represents a relatively permanent increment to the nation's labor force. Unmarried women past 30 now in the labor force are likely to remain in the labor force because their marriage prospects are statistically relatively slim, and they will probably never have occasion to find marriage a means of retirement from work.

Military man-power. Finally, to the extent that the survival of the American economic structure in a lawless world is dependent upon military might, it may be worthwhile soberly to ponder the fact that the nation's military man-power will reach

its peak in about 1950 and decline thereafter. Men of military age (20-34 years) numbered 16,234,000 in 1940. By 1950 men in this age class will number 17,792,000, but after this date our military man-power will begin to decline and will drop to 16,256,000 in 1970, a number approximately equal to the present number.

With the mechanization of modern warfare, man-power alone does not possess its historic importance, but it, nevertheless, still is a significant element of national defense and one which, in the present kind of a world, may well determine whether our economic structure survives.

Land values. The great decline in the rate of urban growth during the past decade points to the conclusion that investments in land do not hold forth the same prospects of increment in the future as they did in the past. Increased land values have been almost entirely a function of anticipated population growth, especially in cities. The decreased rate of urban growth will tend not only to retard increases in land values, but may also depress urban land values as it becomes apparent that optimistic anticipations are not to be realized.

UNCERTAINTIES IN INTERPRETATION

THE economic consequences of recent and predictable population changes, however, are not entirely somber. The decrease in the rate of population growth will be gradual enough to permit adjustments over a period of time, which will make it possible to cushion many of the expected shocks. Inventions and technological changes may provide new outlets for capital and create new opportunities for industrial and business expansion. Effective demand for commodities now produced might conceivably be increased by increases in the purchasing power of large parts of our population with needs that are not now adequately satisfied. Increases in per capita production and a higher standard of living may well provide new outlets for capital

investment and for industrial and business expansion to make up for the loss of large population increments. Other things being equal, at least some types of demand will be more stable and predictable in a slowly changing population, and investment, once adjustment is made, may therefore bring smaller risk. Families, which for many purposes are the basic consumer units, will continue for some time to increase more rapidly than total population and will, therefore, continue to provide an expanding market.

FINALLY, it is to be remembered that it is long-run tendencies which have been discussed, that forces other than those mentioned are at work, and that chances of error in predictions of this type are great. The present national defense and lend-lease programs, for example, will in the immediate future be considerably more important than population changes in its effect on our economy, opening avenues for capital investment, stimulating industrial expansion, and providing markets. These programs, however, can not be expected to be a permanent substitute for decreasing population growth and will leave profound disturbances in their wake.

In conclusion, it is to be emphasized that any discussion of the economic implication of recent population changes must necessarily tread on uncertain ground. Although the population factor is a basic and compelling force in our social and economic life, there are many other factors involved, the inter-play of which is beyond the scope of this paper. The remarks which have been made must necessarily, therefore, be interpreted as indicating some long-time economic trends which may be associated with population changes, assuming that other things remain constant. It is a wise person indeed who can feel competent to predict economic changes from changing population trends or any other set of factors in days like these.

The Newspaper in the Classroom

Katharine W. Dresden

SURE they can win the election; anyone can win through unlimited spending."

"Unlimited spending? The candidates have to declare their expenses."

"Declare, yes, but one can spend and declare \$10,000, while another has \$1,000,000 and another \$1,000,000,000. Naturally, if you spend a billion dollars you'll win."

"A billion dollars! Impossible! There's the corrupt practices act."

"Not in my book. What is it?"

"It's right here in the paper 'Hatch Act Limits Candidates' on page 6."

THE scene is a civics classroom. Thirty-five students are engrossed in the daily paper. Eagerly they scan headlines, follow a column, confer with their neighbors, bring up a point for class discussion. A year ago similar classes talked *about* the paper: one student reported on the topic in the evening paper that had caught his interest, another reported that this morning's headlines were different but he had not had time to read the article, another reported no paper taken at home. The teacher strove valiantly to teach the pupils to read the paper intelligently but the difficulties were insurmountable.

Something had to be done, because as the years go by our present pupils can not be-

This lively report of classroom experience with twelfth-grade pupils comes from a teacher in the Riverside High School, Milwaukee.

come intelligent voters if a civics text is their only source of information. A background of text material must be supplemented by the daily press. Here is to be found current development and editorial comment, but this must be read intelligently to be of value. Teachers have long recognized the need for instruction of this nature, but have found it impractical because they could not insist that all pupils have the same paper the same day.

To the rescue came the Milwaukee newspapers. Here was civics up to date, civics in the making; here was the "text" the students would use at their own lives; here was the solution. The *Milwaukee Sentinel* and the *Milwaukee Journal* each delivered thirty-five copies of their paper to the school every day free of charge.

Newspapers in the classroom: How will there be any learning? How can the teacher control? How can the teacher have the lesson read in time to question the pupils? How can a pupil possibly read twenty or thirty pages for one day? Won't the study hall be disrupted if pupils bring in newspapers? Problems were many and forecasts of failure were more.

MONDAY the papers were there. "Would you like to look at the papers this morning?" I asked. Surprise, then pleasure, as the papers were distributed. Dutifully they glanced at the first page; apparently I studied mine assiduously, but I saw the bolder ones turn surreptitiously to the sports page or the funnies. Nothing happened, so others followed suit.

"Who writes the comics?" I asked. They looked at me in astonishment. "Local men?"

Does the paper contract with each artist? Are they copyrighted, syndicated, or both?" John had the most to say; but John got himself involved; so John "looked up" on comics for the next day.

HELEN laughed, nudged Ruth, and pointed to the paper. Ruth looked at the paper, then at Helen, then frowned at the paper. "I don't get it."

"What don't you 'get'?" I asked. "Ask the class, perhaps someone can help you."

"Helen thinks the cartoon is funny, but I don't get the point."

So Helen explained, but Frank corrected her—the woman wasn't meant to be a woman, but France; France is always a woman, England's a man.

"Why have cartoons?"

"To make you laugh."

"Oh, no," and long explanation follows. Then a little reference reading in the library and the class knows who America's leading cartoonists are, who Milwaukee's cartoonists are, the most commonly used symbols, the values and effects of cartoons in newspapers.

THE sheriff is in the assignment.

"Sheriff" is in the headline and is immediately spotted by Joe. "Look through the article quickly to see what fact you learn about sheriffs," I direct.

"He can't serve more than two terms."

"No, he can only serve two consecutive terms."

"How long is a term?"

"Two years."

"Four years."

"I heard of a man who was sheriff in a place for twenty-five years."

Time for the teacher: "Until you have mastered the basic foundations of civics, is the newspaper a complete text?"

They knew what I meant, and in their assignment notebooks went "Sheriff—text and *Blue Book*." Using newspapers doesn't eliminate other materials.

LUCY was timid, but observing, "Why do some articles begin with AP and some with UP?" She half whispered it to her neighbor, who started to answer. Then George spoke up, "Louder, I don't know either." Art soon exhausted his store of information. Alice noted the source listed under the pictures, Ruth was fired by the thought of an international news service and volunteered to interview a local news-service man and report to the class.

Meanwhile the units of work were clicked off: "Elections," "Political Parties," "Non-partisan Pressure Groups," "County Government." A few minutes of each class period were devoted to the papers. Technical details, make-up, pictures, syndicated articles, advertisements—each came in for a comment that led some one of the class to make a detailed study of it and report this to the class. All benefited by the study.

The papers became a source of fact material, supplementing the text, bringing it up to date, giving practical illustrations of theoretical generalities. Soon the pupils were scanning an article to find additional information or corroboration of a statement in the text.

THE headline doesn't fit the article; it says 'Kennedy Coming Home;' and the article says *maybe* he's coming home."

"Read the whole article—the editor can't say everything in the headline."

There ensued a discussion of newspaper style. Each embryo reporter decided to write up a news event in newspaper style, and submit it to the class for criticism. This involved not only recognizing an event, but the details of English composition. Comparison of the composition of a theme and of a news article resulted in better composition of each.

I DON'T believe what's in the paper." Albert delighted in being different.

"It has to be true or the paper'd be sued," Martha retaliated.

"Oh, I don't know about that!" Albert responded sneeringly.

"Then prove that the news isn't true."

For a moment the non-believers were stumped. Comparing the *Journal* and *Sentinel* articles yielded more points of similarity than of contradiction. It also called attention to comparative length of articles and placement. The pupils were delighted to note that the morning paper did not headline or emphasize the subject headlined in the paper of the preceding evening. Quickly they deduced the relative merits of timeliness and historical importance.

One day a proof was found: "Last night I went to a meeting and here it is written up in the paper, and it is true," crowed Martha.

Immediately they assigned themselves the task of attending a political meeting. After it was over, they were to write a newspaper account of it, mentioning something about the crowd and listing the highlights of the speech. This was to be turned in to the teacher as soon as the student arrived at school. Subsequent comparison of the student reports and the newspaper report showed surprising agreement and gratified the class.

ANOTHER controversy resulted in the question, "Who determines the newspapers' policies?" Answering this was not easy, for rumor had it this way and rancor had it that. "What is the policy?" was overlooked until a little direction showed that the question was valuable. This led to a study of the editorial page, of local editorials, reprints, and syndicated columns. Old *Nation* and *Saturday Evening Post* articles on the columnists were dug out and reported. Dorothy Thompson and Boake Carter and Al Kentner were followed in press and radio and warmly discussed.

AN English teacher said, "Why are all of the civics students writing themes on current affairs?" A science teacher said, "I never before had so many pupils bring me scientific facts from the paper." Coach said, "This year even the girls are reading the sports forecasts." A father said, "My evenings are ruined! No longer can I doze over the paper; the children expect me to discuss it with them." A pupil wrote, "When I get married, if I have enough money, I shall buy a newspaper every day."

And what does the teacher say? "Let me teach the newspaper way!"

It is extremely hazardous to generalize about newspapers. While the contemporary press follows a general pattern adjusted to meet social conditions, there are, nevertheless, great variations among newspapers. . . .

Mere type dress and make-up are only external differences. Papers vary in editorial policy, news selection, emphasis and display, and the manner in which they interpret and analyze contemporary happenings. This is true because newspapers do not operate in a vacuum. The nature of their competition, the character of their circulation, and the kind of advertising that fills their pages, all have effect on shaping the news pattern of a paper. All newspapers deal with concrete events. All attempt to print 'the news.' Yet each newspaper has the power to select from among many events the occurrences it will 'play up' or 'play down.' Indeed, it can censor some of the news by not printing it. It can so display some of it with headlines, illustrations, and attractive position in the paper as to magnify one event above another. (Ralph D. Casey, "How to Read Domestic News," *Seventh Yearbook*, National Council for the Social Studies, 1937, p. 27.)

The "Who" in American History

Gene H. Sloan

AMERICAN history, in common with other secondary school subjects, has undergone radical changes in the past two decades. No longer do the dozen most commonly used high school history texts conform to the chronological pattern familiar to the student of a quarter of a century ago. The time order has been modified to meet the increasing emphasis on economic and social trends, with units covering such broad fields as "Problems in Democracy" or "American Nationalism and Imperialism," relegating the detailed study of presidential administrations to the same limbo that has received Greek verbs.

Since so much has been written about the "What" in American history, little attention has been given to the "Who." And yet the patrons of my school frequently ask, "What personages are now most prominent in the demilitarized and de-traditionalized history texts?" Several detailed studies along this line have been made in the Department of History, George Peabody College for Teachers. One of these studies is here reported.¹

¹Gene H. Sloan, A Study of Emphasis on Personages in American History Textbooks (Master's thesis, George Peabody College for Teachers, 1939).

Most history teachers recognize the possibilities of the "biographical approach," but how well is that approach actually used? The findings, reported here by a teacher in Lebanon, Tennessee, indicate that the textbook treatment of important personages needs supplementing in classwork.

FINDINGS OF THE STUDY

IN four textbooks studied it was found that 1,294 names were mentioned. Of these only 188 were mentioned in all four books! There is a lack of identification of some persons mentioned, which must be confusing to high school pupils. Casual reference by the surname only is made of some persons without connecting them with any particular historical event or reason for inclusion.

Statesmen and rulers occupy the predominant position. Yet the fact that they constitute less than one-third (420) of the total number of persons mentioned indicates the extent to which recent writers deal with individuals' contributions to other fields of endeavor. There was also found in the books studied a subordination of military figures to literary personages. There are mentioned 143 of the former as compared with 184 of the latter. The fifteen sportsmen and one woman athlete that were included indicate the recognition of a group that was, until recent years, excluded from history textbooks as well as from such standard reference works as *Who's Who in America*. Although radio is a potent factor in modern life, not one contemporary radio artist was mentioned.

Considering the importance of religion in the lives of American people, it may be significant that only thirty-five persons connected with that field were mentioned. The large number of aviators (fourteen) mentioned seemed out of proportion to the importance of their work when it was found that only seven names in railroad building and even fewer in the field of water transportation were mentioned. These discov-

eries invited the conclusion that even historians were influenced by the spectacular in their writings.

The objective analysis developed the surprising fact that Washington ranked, not first in the books of historians, but sixth and seventh respectively in the number of times mentioned and the lineage given him. The leading ten figures in times mentioned were in this order: Woodrow Wilson, Theodore Roosevelt, Thomas Jefferson, Abraham Lincoln, Franklin D. Roosevelt, George Washington, Andrew Jackson, Alexander Hamilton, Henry Clay, and Herbert Hoover. In lineage allotted, Thomas Jefferson was first, followed by Andrew Jackson, Abraham Lincoln, Theodore Roosevelt, Franklin D. Roosevelt, Woodrow Wilson, George Washington, Grover Cleveland, Henry Clay, and Alexander Hamilton.

A comparison with Dumas Malone's list of the "American Immortals"² disclosed no reference to Joseph Story in any of the four books. Theodore Roosevelt, numbered in sixteenth position by Malone, ranked second in the survey. Andrew Carnegie, ranked fortieth by Malone, rated twenty-third in the prominence given him by the authors studied. The fact that Thomas Jefferson ranked first in lineage may be due to the fact that his influence has extended from the Revolutionary period to the present administration. Woodrow Wilson's place at the top of the list of persons most frequently mentioned is probably due to the extensive space given to the era in which he lived, replete as it was with transition in politics, culture, economics, and social institutions.

WOMEN AND MINORITIES

THE study led to an investigation of the place women occupy in American history as studied by our high school students. Of the several writers studied it was found that only sixty women were found worthy of space in present day textbooks. Of these

only six were mentioned in all four textbooks. These six were Susan B. Anthony, Margaret Fuller, Ellen Glasgow, Anne Hutchinson, Lucretia Mott, and Harriet Beecher Stowe. About one-third (twenty-two) of the women mentioned were literary personages, indicating that the best chance American women have of gaining a place in history is in the field of letters. However, it is interesting to note that only in the field of military affairs, finance, and science were women completely excluded.

Since America claims England as a mother country, it is only logical that of the 165 persons of non-American names mentioned the vast plurality should be English. The English had eighty of the 165; the French, twenty-two; and the Spanish, twenty. No other nationality had more than nine. Although the Negro constitutes almost one-tenth of our population and since 1619 has been an important factor in our political and social history, only nine Negroes were mentioned. Only one (Dred Scott) appeared in all four books. Two (Joe Louis and Elizabeth Green) were rather transitory figures. No Japanese or Chinese were mentioned. With this exclusion of large racial minorities of our population the writer decided to recheck the list for persons of the Hebrew race. Except for Haym Salomon (mentioned in only one textbook) and a very few others, there is a complete absence of typically Jewish names.

THE study will suggest to other students many interesting questions. For example, does other evidence support the conclusion of this study that racial minorities are slighted in high school history? Do statesmen occupy exceptional space in history texts? To what extent does the attention given in the books here studied to leaders in cultural fields represent a recent increase of emphasis in cultural history? What differences might be found if an investigation similar to this one is made five years hence?

² Dumas Malone, "Who Are the American Immortals?" *Harper's Magazine*, April, 1937.

Pupil Democracy in Action

Barnet Cohen

IN AN effort to develop pupil initiative and responsibility, the teacher delegated the planning for the first half of the spring semester's work in American history to class committees. He hoped thereby (1) to provide the class with opportunity to function as a democratic body for an extended period of time, (2) to aid the development of tolerance, (3) to stimulate the growth of student leadership, and (4) to encourage the fullest pupil activity.

ORGANIZATION OF SUBJECT MATTER

VARIOUS basic organizations were possible. The one selected was a chronological treatment of American history, by presidential administrations, since this seemed the simplest. A mimeographed outline, setting forth the democratic purposes of the procedure, noting the major developments of each administration, and sketching a time schedule, was prepared and distributed to each student. The "projects" or sections to be covered were:

I. *Administration of President Washington*: Foreign and domestic affairs, with emphasis on treaties and proclamations in reference to foreign affairs, and on Hamilton's financial policy; the conflict between Jeffersonian and Hamiltonian ideals during this period is taken up in detail. Time: 3 days.

Students can, of course, cooperate in the planning and conduct of classroom work. The use of student committees in an American history class at the New Utrecht High School, Brooklyn, is described by the departmental chairman in that school.

II. *Administration of John Adams*: Foreign and domestic affairs, with emphasis on XYZ affair, Alien and Sedition Acts, and the Kentucky and Virginia Resolutions; contributions of the Federalist Party and reasons for its downfall; election of 1800. Time: 2 days.

III. *Administration of Thomas Jefferson*: Domestic affairs—how Jefferson put his ideals into practice, or failed to do so; foreign affairs—the Louisiana Purchase; policy of "peaceful coercion." Time: 3 days.

IV. *Administration of James Madison*: Foreign affairs—War of 1812, causes, conduct, effects; domestic affairs—the Hartford Convention of 1816, Second National Bank, Westward movement. Time: 2 days.

V. *Administration of James Monroe*: Foreign affairs—the Monroe Doctrine; domestic affairs—the "Era of Good Feeling." Time: 2 days.

VI. *Administration of John Quincy Adams*. Time: 1 day.

VII. *Administration of Andrew Jackson*: Domestic policies—struggle with the Bank, tariff and nullification Act; spoils system; "Kitchen Cabinet," Jacksonian contributions to democracy; elections of 1828, 1832, 1836; causes of Panic of 1837. Time: 5 days.

VIII. *The Supreme Court under John Marshall*. Time: 1 day.

IX. *Cultural and literary development to 1837*. Time: 5 days.

X. *Outstanding topics for development in review*: (1) political history and parties to 1837; (2) tariff history to 1837—economic development; (3) slavery issue to 1837; (4) nullification and secession to 1837; (5) territorial development and westward movement to 1837; (6) growth of democracy; and (7) foreign affairs to 1837.

Political history obviously dominates the organization, but the major issues in the development of the United States during the first half century of our national existence are treated, outstanding personalities are given attention, and social and cultural aspects are not ignored.

ORGANIZATION OF THE CLASS

THE mimeographed outline also indicated the class organization and procedure that had been agreed upon. Each of the ten projects or sections was put in the charge of a committee of three to five pupils. Each committee chose its own chairman, who planned the classwork and distribution of responsibility in cooperation with the other members of the committee, and who presided when his section was taken up in class.

It was agreed that when possible an assignment would be worked out for the class, involving textbook study and possibly collateral reading, and that a summary of the project, with lists of references, motion pictures, and radio programs, with a brief outline of essential facts, and with appropriate key questions, would be mimeographed and distributed. A variety of possible activities was also suggested, including (1) oral reports on readings, museum visits, radio programs, movies, and lectures, (2) the introduction of visual and illustrative materials; and (3) debates, symposiums, and dramatizations.

It was further agreed, and indicated on the mimeographed outline, that a secretary should take minutes, to be read at the beginning of the succeeding class period, that an "English critic" should call attention to errors at the close of each period, and that invitations should be issued to students, parents, and other teachers to participate when they had pertinent contributions to make.

The teacher, it was made clear, would be available for consultation, suggestions, and advice in planning, and for help during

class periods when the chairman should request help. It was felt that he might be called upon especially for summarizing and for emphasizing aspects of the classwork.

Pupil suggestions were invited at all times.

THE PLAN IN OPERATION

AFTER two days of preliminary discussion and organization, the program was put into effect, and was followed for two months. Perhaps some of the minutes provide the best indication of procedure:

Minutes of Jefferson Committee: Yesterday's lesson was presented in the form of a "broadcast" of the highlights of Jefferson's life from birth to the time of his election as President. Jefferson was born in Monticello, Virginia, of an aristocratic family. At the age of twenty-four he began his career as a lawyer, but after eight years gave up his practice of law, in spite of the persuasion of his friends who thought he should continue his work. Jefferson was representative in the House of Burgesses and later in the Continental Congress. Jefferson became famous as the author of the Declaration of Independence. He was a crusader for life, liberty, the pursuit of happiness, and religious freedom. He was also very much opposed to slavery.

In 1784 Jefferson was appointed Minister to France. While in France, he tried to negotiate treaties and pay off the foreign debt. He saw the French Revolution begin, and knew that if it were successful, a new Republic would be born. He thought that France should have a separation of powers (legislative, judicial, and executive) such as we have in the United States. After Jefferson's return from France, he was appointed Secretary of State by Washington, and there ensued a conflict with Hamilton over his financial policy. During the Presidential campaign of 1796, Jefferson was defeated by John Adams, but he himself defeated Aaron Burr in the following election. During Jefferson's administration the Naturalization Act was repealed. In 1801 the Alien and Sedition Laws expired, and those who were convicted under the Sedition Act were pardoned. Soon the Whiskey Tax was also repealed.

An interview with President Jefferson was

dramatized. He was asked his opinion of New Jersey and Mayor Hague, among other things. Later in the period, the chairman, Mr. Donneson, led a class discussion on the following questions:

1. Do you think that the majority of the population favored the Constitution?
2. How do you account for the fact that although Jefferson was an aristocrat by birth, he took the part of the poorer classes?
3. Why did Jefferson oppose the Alien and Sedition Acts?
4. Why didn't Jefferson take the Alien and Sedition Acts to court?
5. What would be Jefferson's reaction to the present embargo on Spain; and would he have adopted neutrality at the present time?
6. How do you account for the fact that foreigners of the time favored the Anti-Federalists?

[An assignment was given to specific pages in the basic text.]

Minutes of the Cultural Committee: Florence Cohen, chairman of the Cultural Committee, called the meeting together, described briefly the topics which the Cultural Committee hoped to cover, and then turned the meeting over to Ascenazi, who presented a lengthy report on the development of music from 1750-1860.

Ascenazi described pure American music, which includes Indian Musical tunes; folk music on the plantations from which Negro spirituals, like "Swing Low, Sweet Chariot," are derived; and Stephen Foster's songs. Sentimental melodies like "Home, Sweet Home" by John Howard Payne, were also considered pure American music. Nationalistic music such as "Yankee Doodle," "The Star Spangled Banner," by Francis Scott Key, and Civil War music like "Dixie," are other typical examples of pure American music. We heard two phonograph records played for illustration: "Old Folks at Home," and "Massa's in De Cold Cold Ground."

During this period American classical music was developing. It was not original since our own American composers followed, for the most part, the lines of the great European composers. Church and organ music were the first examples of classical music in America. A few musical societies sprang up, such as the Handel and Haydn Society of Boston, and the Boston Music Hall. Ascenazi informed us that William

Billings was one of America's first classical composers. The New York Philharmonic Symphony Society, and the Boston Symphony Society were founded at this time. Most of the little opera that was performed was heard in New York.

Upon finishing his oral report, Ascenazi conducted a short quiz, in which four students participated. He asked questions, such as:

Name five songs written by Stephen Foster.
Who wrote the national anthem?
Hum the melody of "Home, Sweet Home."

We did not finish the quiz, as our chairman had to advise us on the advance lesson. Our assignment is on the Development of Science.

Minutes of the Cultural Committee: The meeting was called to order by our chairman, Florence Cohen, and the minutes read.

Once again, by request, Henig demonstrated the flint and steel method of making a fire. He also showed the Indian method of the spindle and bow.

Miss Lettese then took over the meeting and discussed art in general. Her first topic concerned crafts. Our first craftsmen were content to have their products plain and ordinary. Gradually, however, they all began to strive for beauty. Therefore, American crafts are considered our first arts. Glassmaking is an example. Glassware was the first manufactured export of the United States, and developed as early as 1608. We were shown pictures illustrating glassware. Silverware, seen in the earliest of spoons which were all of table spoon size, was an example of an old craft. As the wealth of the colonies increased, the demand for silverware increased. Paul Revere was one of the greatest silversmiths of his time.

Miss Lettese continued by discussing clocks. The origin of clocks is unknown, but the construction is very interesting. Thomas Harland was one of the famous watchmakers of his day. After each phase of her topic, Miss Lettese showed the class pictures to illustrate her points.

In describing furniture, Miss Lettese noted that English influence could be seen. At first soft wood was used, so that delicate work was impossible. When ebony was introduced, some variations were attempted. The styles we use in our furniture today were developed during the eighteenth century, for the most part.

Hepplewhite was one of the greatest furniture makers.

Needlework was a prime occupation in nearly every household, and even in the schools during the eighteenth century, and the early nineteenth century. The field of painting was represented by George Innes, one of America's greatest landscape artists. Mrs. Patience Wright was America's first sculptress. The colonies did not welcome sculpture, and her only remaining work is a portrait bust of Franklin. Houdon, another great sculptor, did a huge portrait of Washington which is now in the Capitol. The work of John Quincy Adams Waid still stands in Central Park, and remains great.

Foreign influence is evident in our architecture, although the sole purpose of building in earliest times was to provide shelter. The Dutch influence predominates along the Hudson River, on Long Island and in Northern New Jersey. With an example of a Dutch house which she herself had sketched from a house on 18th Avenue and 81st Street, Miss Lettese explained the Dutch characteristics to us. The question of using art for propaganda purposes was being discussed when the bell rang.

VALUES AND WEAKNESSES

A SHORT time after the experiment was terminated, a meeting was arranged at which three of the pupil participants presented their reactions to the plan before a group of twelve teachers. After a period of questioning by the teachers, the group arrived at a number of conclusions. They decided that the experiment was successful in that:

1. It provided for individual differences.

2. The project was interesting.

3. It demonstrated the pupils' ability to accomplish something worth while.

4. It gave the students pride in their accomplishments.

5. It encouraged research work. In preparation for his committee work, one pupil read three books on Jackson; another pupil read nine books altogether; another read a history of American music; another sought information at the New York Philharmonic Society.

6. It was a new experience to the students.

7. It made history real.

8. It provided for discussion and thought.

9. Such student participation is really "democracy in action," and prepares these young people to be more useful and able citizens.

In the opinion of the students, the experiment fell short in that:

1. Some students were inclined to "take it easy," and did not study the text, as they would have had to do in a "traditional class."

2. Some committees did poor jobs.

3. Some students did little committee work.

4. Students did not learn the details in the textbook.

5. In general, these students did not do very well on written examinations.

However, whether you consider this departure in method a success or failure, the activity itself will always be remembered with pleasure by the pupils and the teacher.

High School Seniors Study Milwaukee

Alfred Reschke

DURING the first week of a semester a casual suggestion that students might make a firsthand study of their community was dropped in four senior classes, one in sociology, one in civics, and two in economics. The 120 seniors in these classes had ample opportunity to consider and discuss the idea. After coming back to it several times, all four groups decided to undertake the study. It started as a voluntary project, but ended with all but a very few participating; the four or five who took no part were either absent much of the time or had serious difficulties in other phases of their school work.

ORGANIZING THE WORK

AT THE outset it was agreed that one class period each week would be devoted to organizing and discussing the work, with use of such additional time before and after school as might be necessary. To obtain some point of departure for organizing the work, the members of each class listed on the blackboard the aspects of Milwaukee that they wanted to investigate. The preliminary lists comprised about sixty

Community study and community surveys can, of course, be closely related to courses in civics, sociology, and economics. This account of such study by seniors in the North Division High School, Milwaukee, is reported by a member of the history department in that school.

items, but after duplicate and irrelevant items had been eliminated, forty topics remained. Further inspection of the list revealed to the students that the topics could be grouped under five main heads: (1) physiographic, etc., (2) historical, (3) economic, (4) social, and (5) political.

The students decided not to have any set rule about assigning the topics. Each student chose the topic he preferred insofar as this was possible without too much duplication. In some instances the same topic was chosen by more than one student. In other cases several students were encouraged to form a committee and work out a larger topic jointly. Most of the information was gathered, discussed, and organized by committees.

The students discovered rather early that there would be need for some definite procedure in gathering the data, interviewing persons in the community, and in interpreting and writing up their findings. To meet this need, a three-page mimeographed statement of procedure was drawn up. Copies were given to all students.

All pupils had, of course, obtained signed parent-permits to leave the school grounds as soon as the survey was undertaken. The permission of the principal had likewise been obtained.

AS THE students began to look for material, the need for a comprehensive bibliography became apparent. Through cooperative effort, a bibliography of seventy-one titles on Milwaukee was compiled. This list included pamphlets, formal his-

tories, local, state, and federal government reports, banking publications, church reports, welfare publications, pamphlets issued by racial groups, labor reports, and miscellaneous materials. The students found some of these in their own homes or in the possession of their friends. They also discovered that some items of local history were rare and could be obtained only with special permission at the municipal reference library in the city hall, or at the public library.

As each committee organized under its chairman and formulated its approach to its problem, the chairman reported the tentative plans to the teacher. After due consideration of the plans, arrangements were made to go to various places in the community with the teacher. Among the places visited one or more times were the federal building, the city hall, the county courthouse, the newspaper plants, several hospitals, clinics, social centers, police stations, libraries, banks, industrial plants, private clubs, welfare agencies, certain neighborhoods, housing projects, historical sites, municipal service buildings, and business bureaus. Occasionally two or more committees were combined for one trip, but the groups were seldom large. The information gathered was brought back to the classroom, where the committees went over it, discussed it, organized it, and put it into final form. All reports passed through three stages: (1) outline; (2) preliminary draft; (3) final form. The typed reports were then bound into a 285-page book for permanent reference.

INCIDENTAL ACTIVITY

THROUGHOUT the survey, a conscious effort was made to correlate the social studies, especially English, speech, typing, music, art, mechanical drawing, and mathematics. Three boys and one girl wrote poems about Milwaukee, the inspiration for these literary efforts coming from an old poem entitled "Milwaukee," written by a Reverend C. F. LeFevre in 1855. Re-

gardless of the shortcomings of these poems from a literary standpoint, they do possess the merit of having aroused in the student authors an attitude of pride and concern toward their community. Two of the poems appear below.

"OUR MILWAUKEE"

Where do you s'pose the place would be,
Where families dwell and folks are free;
Where churches tall push to the sky,
Where people seldom fret or sigh;
The place of public buildings fair,
Where civic pride pervades the air;
Where ideals still hold high their heads
With little danger of the "Reds";
Where education, staunch and stern,
Presents its facts for us to learn;
Where charity and friendship rare
Alleviate the daily care?
I know you'll understand and see
That place is our own *Milwaukee*.

John Don Fritz

The second poem was also an acrostic:

Mighty and strong on the lake shore she stands
Time cannot conquer with swift-flowing sands.
In the halls of our courthouse of stone
Right is triumphant and quick to atone.
Long aisles of green are her avenues all
Where children can play, and robin does call.
With each Sunday the church bells will ring
And her people rejoice as they sing.
All her teachers and pupils delight
In the thought that they work for the right.
Under the eyes of her guardians of law
She is free of the crime's horrid claw.
Known for her towers and pillars of steel
Yet she's alive with a heart one can feel.
Eons of time will not tarnish the sword
That has severed the Gordian cord;
Even so shall her noblest name
Never tarnish in annals of fame.

Erwin Behr

One girl with a strong interest in religion chose to study the religious beliefs of the people of Milwaukee. She headed a committee of three students whom she persuaded to work with her. This girl obtained from the United States census reports the membership of the various religious denominations in Milwaukee. She then figured the percentages for each group and found that Milwaukee is approximately 53 per cent Catholic, 23 per cent Lutheran, 9 per cent Hebrew, with the other denomi-

nations showing a strength of less than 3 per cent each. These figures were then used to construct a colored circle graph to portray her findings more effectively.

A boy who said he wanted to become a lawyer chose to study the numerical distribution of the professional population of Milwaukee. He encountered considerable difficulty in finding the information which he needed. He interviewed lawyers, ministers, doctors, musicians, engineers, and others; and from their respective association reports, together with what he gleaned from the census reports, he finally was enabled to present one of the most comprehensive and "scholarly" chapters in the entire survey.

As the work progressed, it became apparent that provision must be made for editing, typing, assembling, and binding the final combined report. A committee of sixteen students, only half of whom were participating in the survey, was organized to do the typing in the commercial department of the school.

Several students volunteered to prepare illustrations to accompany certain chapters in addition to their regular responsibilities on their respective committees. Some of these illustrations possessed pronounced merit; others were just average. A few boys with training in mechanical drawing constructed statistical tables relative to population, industrial production, shipping, taxation, occupations, and the like.

One unfortunate incident occurred which showed definitely the importance of instructing the students very carefully in how to carry on an interview and how to seek information. A boy had chosen to investigate the labor organizations of Milwaukee. He found, however, that although there were many labor groups, specific information was difficult to obtain. On the teacher's suggestion, he went to the private library of the *Milwaukee Journal*, a local newspaper, and asked the librarian for information on "Labor Problems in Milwau-

kee." She naturally wanted to know more definitely what he was after, but since he was not very clear about it himself, he apparently did not present his request very lucidly. Unable to get what he wanted, largely because he did not know what he wanted, he left the library disgruntled. Clearly, in this case, the teacher was as much at fault as the student, perhaps more.

COLLECTING BOOKS ABOUT MILWAUKEE

AT THE risk of digressing from the central theme of this article, a few remarks will be added here about my personal efforts to collect books and other materials about Milwaukee; community study can have an effect on teachers as well as pupils. As noted above, the first task was to compile a bibliography of publications pertaining to Milwaukee and its immediate suburbs. The bibliography indicated what was extant. The larger and more important works were readily accessible in the libraries. As the work progressed, I became interested in these local historical materials independently of our classroom project and resolved to purchase such as I found for my own use, provided that the price was not prohibitive. Quite naturally, I inquired first at the larger bookstores which cater to the new book trade. I met with but scant success here. I then turned to the second-hand bookstores. Here I was somewhat more successful but the prices asked were relatively high. Next, I inquired among old settlers. This expedient placed me in touch with the Milwaukee County Historical Association. My subsequent membership in this organization proved to be very helpful in many ways.

About the same time, I also visited the antique shops, re-sell shops, warehouses, the Salvation Army Reclamation Headquarters, and the Goodwill Industries. At these establishments I was generously rewarded for my efforts. At the last-named institution, I purchased a moderately scarce three-volume history of Milwaukee County, pub-

lished in 1895 and totaling some 1400 pages, at fifty cents a volume; also a 1600-page single-volume history of Milwaukee of 1881 for one dollar. At a public auction shop specializing in disposing of household effects, I was fortunate enough to purchase an elaborate four-volume history of Milwaukee at \$1.25 a volume, although this set was issued at \$60 just a few years previously. A few rare Milwaukee items published toward the middle of the past century, which have been listed in rare-book catalogs under the general head of Americana, have bobbed up here and there but not often at bargain prices. Among the other items which these excursions to the re-sell shops netted were old prints, old political and literary pamphlets, stereoscopic views, privately printed volumes of poetry, old maps, miscellaneous city reports, anniversary publications of churches and other religious or fraternal groups, city directories, and miscellaneous items published by business and industrial concerns. In two instances, I was able to trade duplicate items for other items which I lacked. In a short time, I have assembled a collection of almost a hundred items pertaining to the history of Milwaukee.

My purpose in relating these details here is simply to call attention in a concrete way to the wealth of useful social studies materials which is tucked away in odd corners of our communities and which usually may be had for very little money, occasionally for the mere asking. As the years pass by, many items now current will become scarce or unobtainable. The social studies teacher can, if he will, serve himself, his profession, and his community by helping to preserve these literary and artistic records of community life. The object of using such materials in a limited way in the social studies is not to make antiquarians out of our students but rather to utilize such materials in building desirable civic attitudes in students and to a lesser extent perhaps to provide them with useful factual

information about the community in which they live.

FAVORABLE OUTCOMES OF THE SURVEY

MUCH valuable pamphlet, booklet, and mimeographed material was gathered. I thought the students were, on the whole, quite successful in locating publications and in obtaining copies for our classroom files. Their efforts will benefit students in the years to come.

The firsthand contact with local leaders, institutions, and practices made the community real to the students. It is really amazing how little many of our young men and women in the senior year of the high school know about the community in which they have lived all their lives. Some do not know the difference between the courthouse and the city hall. They do not know that an emergency hospital exists or where it is. They have no idea how taxes are assessed or collected. They have not the faintest idea of the existence of the credit bureau or the municipal reference library, and so forth. By going out into the community and making firsthand observations of the community in action, they had the living reality instead of the wordy abstractions and academic discussions of the classroom. This was all clear gain.

The formality of the classroom was broken. The discussion of the students became more vital; they had something to say which was of importance to them. Spontaneous interest was exhibited in the work.

Some agencies in the community learned that young people were interested in them. Such agencies as the Citizens' Bureau, the welfare agencies, the Association of Commerce, the Old Settlers' Club, and others found out that the boys and girls wanted to know how the activities of these agencies were related to the larger life of the community. In this way the school fulfilled its rightful function of introducing the younger generation to its larger home, the community.

Finally the students received training in initiating, in planning, in organizing data, and in working cooperatively.

UNFAVORABLE OUTCOMES

SOME students were doomed to failure from the very start. Several of the topics which were stated in our list were of such a nature that very little information could be obtained without herculean effort. We found that relatively little information was available for students upon the economic life of Milwaukee. Large concerns do not voluntarily divulge information regarding such items as employment conditions, payrolls, kind and amount of goods produced, and corporate organization. Some of them are working on government contracts producing war materials. Prior to 1929, some of the banks collected and published some data of an economic nature, but even this was quite general. Since the depression, very little information has been published. Similarly, we had but little success in studying organized labor. The city is filled with unions but no one seems to know what the whole picture, past and present, is like. Students who chose such topics as these were forced to do much work with but meager returns.

Group field trips were not very numerous and not very well planned. The clerical work and the conferences with students took so much time that there was little time left to devote to the important task of preparing the students to study the community methodically and then accompanying them on the trip. This was indeed unfortunate, but part of the blame must be borne by the system of mass instruction as it works out in our large city high schools. No one is personally responsible for the situation; it is merely a circumstance which is perhaps inseparable from complex institutionalism.

Pressure of other teachers, other subjects, and outside interests interfered. Field trips

often conflicted with other teachers' classes and plans. They are, therefore, not very popular. Some of the students are gainfully employed after school hours. This complicated matters. Clubs, music organizations, athletic groups, and other activities which meet after school had to be reckoned with. The net result was that the inertia was too great to overcome and we did not take as many trips as we should have taken.

Insufficient attention was given by the teacher to individuals and to groups. Instead of leisurely conferences in which a free exchange of ideas could occur between student and teacher, hurried instructions were often given to students between classes or at other odd moments. Often they had to carry out the teacher's instructions without having had a chance to present alternative plans. This was poor teaching.

The students were inadequately trained both in the techniques of community study and in preparing their essays in final form. More time should have been devoted to explaining such important items as how to close an interview, how to take notes, how to credit sources of information, how to weave the miscellaneous collected data into a meaningful and effective essay. It must be remembered, however, that this was simply an average group of students. It is not surprising that the results were also about average—a few being poor, many being fairly good, and a few being superior.

The project was time-consuming. It took many hours to plan the venture and many more hours to collect materials, organize them, and produce the finished topics. Viewed from this angle, I am not altogether certain that our project was worth the time and energy spent. It was an enriching and valuable experience for me as a teacher. I sincerely hope that it was of considerable value to the students. Their cooperation under adverse conditions will always be remembered with the warmest appreciation.

A Continuous Program for In-Service Professional Growth

R. W. Cordier

THE academic preparation leading to teacher certification represents an important, but only the first, step toward successful teaching. The alert beginning teacher will readily discover many shortcomings in his teaching and will be impressed with the progressive and widespread changes that are taking shape throughout the nation's schools in the teaching of the social studies today. Widespread experimentation, special studies by local and regional committees, and the abundance of professional literature are evidences of this progressive and evolutionary movement. Because of this situation, it is essential that teachers continue to grow in professional knowledge and efficiency throughout their teaching careers.

Both elementary and secondary members of the social studies staff should participate in a single coordinated program of in-service professional growth. This assertion is based on the conviction that a proper sequence of social development on the part of the pupils can be achieved only through the effective coordination of instruction reaching from the first grade through the high school.

This article, on the theme of the Tenth Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies, is contributed by the head of the Social Studies Department in the State Teachers College at Clarion, Pennsylvania.

In-service professional growth generally refers to such matters as the reading of professional literature, research, experimentation, advanced summer school study, and travel. The following proposal includes a consideration of these and other important phases of professional growth. Emphasis however is placed upon the approach to and organization for in-service professional growth.

PLAN OF THE PROGRAM

IT WOULD be desirable if each teacher through his individual effort could acquire and maintain an effective up-to-date acquaintance with the widespread developments in the teaching of the social studies through the professional literature in the field and at the same time broaden and deepen his academic grasp through study and travel. This is perhaps more than may be expected; it is, at any rate, more than is being done by most teachers. In order that essentially the same end may be reached a cooperative plan of continuous study is proposed.

The plan is that a series of committees be organized. In a typical medium-sized school system from four to six committees could be organized to function at a time. Each committee should be comprised of four members in such a way that the primary, intermediate, junior high school, and senior high school grade levels will be represented in each study. This is the one effective way of avoiding wasteful duplication of method, teaching devices, and material. Furthermore, it will assure that much-to-be-

desired developmental sequence in social education. Not only will it make for effective and continually refreshing learning on the part of the pupil but will prove stimulating to the teacher by reason of the fact that he will approach his teaching as a significant phase of a long-term process.

Each committee should undertake the study of a significant problem such as one of those suggested below. Some problems will require attention for only a few weeks out of each school year, whereas others should be given continuous attention. Committee assignments might well be shifted occasionally in order to afford stimulation and breadth of study and research.

SELECTED PROBLEMS AND PROJECTS

1. The selection and organization of a central social studies professional library, including books, yearbooks, bulletins, special studies, journals, surveys, and useful clippings.

2. The selection and organization of a central social studies library for the staff, composed of outstanding academic books which present new and stimulating interpretations in the field of the social sciences. Examples of such would be Beard and Beard's *America in Mid-Passage*, Nevins' *Gateway to History*, and Rauschnig's *Redemption of Democracy*. This project may assume the form of a circulating library among the staff, in which case each member agrees to buy one outstanding book a year recommended by the committee after careful selection has been made.

3. Survey of outstanding programs offered by college and university summer sessions for the special benefit of social studies teachers.

4. Survey of selected sightseeing and educational travel agencies for the benefit of those who wish to broaden and enrich their knowledge through summer travel. Among the former type of agencies are Thomas Cook and Son, Marsh Tours, Keller Travel Club, and Ideal Tours, all of New York.

Among the latter type may be mentioned the Bureau of University Travel of Newton, Massachusetts, and the Open Road and Students' International Travel Association, of New York.

5. Preparation of a descriptive statement of the character, purposes, services, and programs of professional organizations with which the teacher should be familiar and of some of which he should be a member. Some of these are the National Council for the Social Studies, National Education Association, American Historical Association, American Political Science Association, and state education associations.

6. Survey of the local community for the special benefit of the teacher as a citizen thereof, to reveal the cultural background of the pupils, and as a source of instructional materials.

7. Preparation of a basic working philosophy of education which will characterize and give direction to instruction throughout the school.

8. Formulation of a master list of objectives of instruction in the social studies. This should include a statement of general objectives for the entire staff and lists of specific objectives for ascending grade levels and courses.

9. Reconstruction of the social studies course of study. This should be done in the light of local peculiarities and needs, and in terms of significant curriculum trends throughout the country. The committee will want to make a careful study of local, state, and regional programs, of experimentation, and of pioneer thinking along this line. Particular attention should be given the sequential organization of the course and the gradation of content.

10. Examination and recommendation of basic and collateral textbooks and workbooks for the respective grades and subjects.

11. Preparation of a graded and selected bibliography of library books for pupils to be recommended for purchase for the

school library. These should include general reference works, source material, narrative, travel, biography, and fiction. This project may assume the form of recommendations for basic classroom libraries.

12. Study of pictorial materials of instruction. A survey should be made of the available picture materials such as flat pictures (paintings, reproductions, prints, line drawings, photographs, and cartoons), stereographs, slides, film strips, silent and sound motion pictures. The picture materials that are purchased should be graded and classified for sequential use. A thorough study should be made of the most effective methods of utilizing these materials in instruction. A stimulating and interesting phase of this study would be that of selecting appropriate pictures for the decoration of the classrooms of the social studies staff.

13. A study comparable to the preceding one should be made of map materials of instruction. These should include cartographic, physical, and political wall maps, globes, atlases, and desk outline maps. A study should be made of effective map procedures in order to assure a systematic development of space, distance, direction, and location concepts on the part of the pupils.

14. Survey and selection of graphic instructional aids other than pictures and maps. These may include charts and graphs relating time sequence and relations, proportion, political, civic, social, and economic processes, trends, and structures.

15. Development of a school museum. This may be composed of projects and models made by the students and materials secured by the teachers. A community survey conducted by the students under the judicious direction of the teachers will uncover many primary materials in the form of printed materials, pictures, and models.

16. Survey, selection, gradation, and educational evaluation of free and inexpensive

instructional materials published by commercial concerns. The following guides will prove helpful:

Peabody College, *A List of Free and Low Cost Educational Materials for Elementary Grades*; Rowena Hausen, *Help for Teachers* (U. S. Office of Education); Quarrie Corporation, *Free and Inexpensive Educational Materials*; Educator's Progress League, *Educator's Index of Free Materials*.

17. Survey of the current-events publications prepared for the respective grade levels and of supplementary magazines and newspapers to be used in the teaching of current events. A study should be made of the best methods to be employed in current-events instruction.

18. Study of the unit procedure as a comprehensive and effective approach to the teaching of the social studies on the various grade levels. See Henry Kronenberg, ed., *Programs and Units in the Social Studies* (National Council for the Social Studies).

19. A study of the various methods to be employed in teaching. They may include:

- A. Discussion method, including a consideration of effective questioning and the educational utilization and treatment of right and wrong answers.
- B. Source method, involving the use of readings, written and pictorial documents, and relics.
- C. The textbook method.
- D. The problem and project methods.

20. Study of important aspects of instruction in the social studies such as:

- A. The essential nature of and promotion of critical thinking and of historical-mindedness.
- B. The nature of meaning and the development of meaningful concepts through the social studies.
- C. Creative education.
- D. Nature of, and provision for, individual differences.
- E. Directed study and learning.
- F. Motivation, or the means of creating an effective emotional approach or mind set.
- G. Vocabulary difficulties and their correction.

21. Survey of available intelligence, diagnostic, and achievement tests in the social studies, principles of effective test construction, and the evaluation and utilization of test and teaching results.

Why Not A Historical Hobby Club?

Marion F. Noyes

THERE are many ways in which pupils may be taught to love and preserve their local history. Each teacher must discover for himself what way best fits his own local situation. One way, however, which I think is apt to appeal to boys and girls in the intermediate grades, as well as those in the junior and senior high, is through a historical club.

Just ask your boys and girls if they would like to bring to school some pictures that they have at home, maybe in the attic or bureau drawer—pictures of the village or city twenty-five or fifty years ago, pictures of their parents when they were in school, pictures of the first automobiles in town. The pictures are sure to arouse interest and may lead to discoveries of probably greater value.

Or you may be able, with their help, to collect facts regarding the history of your school district, your town, or the leading occupation of your town. Perhaps you will be able to trace the changes in types of industries in your community. In any case, the study of civics should come to life as specific local illustrations are found.

Still another interesting field is that of folklore. Encourage your pupils to bring to you the stories that their grandparents

may tell them of the early days of the community, the ghost stories, the good and bad luck omens, the cures, stories of the games and parties they used to enjoy. These should be carefully recorded before they are entirely forgotten. *Body, Boots, and Britches*¹ by Harold Thompson and *Folklore from the Schoharie Hills*² by Emilie Gardner show what an interesting field there is to explore. Incidentally writing skills improve when students have something to say that they wish to say well.

WE organized a club in our high school three years ago, the students choosing the name, Junior Historical Association. I think that the Historical Hobby Club would be a more attractive name. The club was welcomed by the county historical society, and other schools were invited to organize similar clubs.

Our club collected a number of interesting pictures of former graduates, former teachers and school groups, arranging an exhibit of them in the school lobby for a week. A group picture of boys in a Junior Red Cross meeting knitting for the soldiers of 1918 looked rather amusing in 1938, but might not look so queer a year from now. Later a committee from the club helped the librarian to arrange an exhibit in the library of various articles, especially old school texts, to show how schoolbooks had changed in the last fifty or one hundred years.

Some of the members spent considerable time making a card catalog of all the articles which they had collected. They held

Clubs and informal activities, suggests a teacher in Cobleskill, New York, can tie in with the perennially fascinating study of local history and the community. The suggestion is applicable to either senior or junior high school.

¹ Philadelphia: Lippincott, 1939.

² Ann Arbor: Univ. of Michigan Press, 1937.

a food sale and used the proceeds to purchase the four volumes of O'Callaghan's *Documentary History of New York State*.³

The books and pamphlets which they collected were used by the members of the eleventh-year English class when they wrote their essays on Schoharie County history. Several of these essays were entered in a county contest, and two of the three prizes were won by students of our school.

RECENTLY we received a very interesting contribution to our collection. The author of our school song, a graduate of thirty years ago, visited our school assembly and gave a very lively account of school days thirty years ago, concluding by presenting the school with the original copy of the song, written on scrap paper during a dull study hall period.

³ Vol. I-III, Albany: Weed, Parsons, and Co., 1849-50; Vol. IV, Albany: Charles Benthuyssen, 1850.

Meanwhile, we are developing a historical library. We have some old newspapers, an old deed, booklets of the school and of the town, and we hope to add to this collection each year. It would be fine if all schools, particularly the schools in rural areas, might establish small museums to preserve and make known their own local history.

It is really surprising how a collection grows after it is once started. Just what activities would be most enjoyable and most worth while for your own pupils you will have to determine by intuition or experience. Children delight in clubs and love to collect things. Why not make use of these traits to develop their knowledge and pride in their local history? In this time of stress this will provide a valuable emotional outlet, help them to realize that they have roots in the past, and perhaps carry them into a lasting interest.

Thus the study of the community can contribute effectively to: (1) gaining an understanding of our evolving culture; (2) building a wholesome framework of values; (3) developing individual competence in social participation. It will be noted that these objectives are broader than both the community and the social-studies area. This is an indication of the validity of the concept of the community-centered school. The community offers a matrix within which all the activities of the school can be given meaning and through which all valid objectives of education can be promoted. Education should not end with the community; however, the community offers a continuous point of reference and motivation for a study of the life beyond it. More important, it offers a continuous opportunity for that rich participation in vital life activities which is so necessary to the promotion of social competence and the achievement of democratic values within the confusions and complexities of our age. (James Quillen, "Education for Democratic Living," *Utilization of Community Resources in the Social Studies*, Ninth Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies, 1938, pp. 10-11.)

Changing Content in Elementary Social Studies

Charles S. Turner

PROBLEMS of materials and methods in the social studies have received a tremendous amount of attention during the past few years. The changing state of the society in which we live and the demands of intelligent citizenship in a democracy have stimulated teachers, administrators, and experts in the field of social studies to re-examine their positions and to attempt to formulate patterns of instruction which will be more conducive to intelligent participation in a democratic society.

The changes which have occurred in the content of elementary social studies were traced through an objective analysis of 1,207 courses of study. These were selected to give a wide sampling of courses constructed in all sections of the United States during the periods 1917-24, 1925-34, and 1935-39. Changes were established from a comparison of the content of the courses that were examined from these three periods.

Courses of study in the social studies published during the past twenty years reveal many changes of emphasis and organization. This article is based on an unpublished doctoral dissertation, "Some Changes During the Last Twenty Years in Materials and Methods in Elementary Social Studies," on file in the library of the University of Missouri. The author is associate head of the department of education, State Normal School, Oswego, New York.

OBJECTIVES

THERE has been a rather pronounced change in the statement of objectives in the social studies area. This change has been in the direction of increased emphasis upon the social aspect of education. The general objectives analyzed were divided into two categories. This division was made on the basis of whether or not the objectives were stated in terms of values to the individual or values to society. This analysis showed that 77 per cent of the program objectives in the earlier courses were stated in terms of values to the individual, while only 60 per cent of the objectives from the most recently published courses were stated in these terms. This seems to indicate that the people responsible for course-of-study construction in the social studies area have increasingly felt that the purpose of instruction in this field is not only to guide pupils in the acquisition of facts and knowledge, but also to give training in social relationships as they exist, and to provide opportunities for participation in the solution of group problems.

A more detailed analysis of these objectives showed other changes in the desired outcomes of social studies instruction. As might be expected, early individual objectives were often stated in terms of mental discipline, such as the improvement of memory or the development of imagination. The percentage of such objectives has declined in the later courses. The ability to use tools of learning is receiving greater emphasis as an outcome of instruction. Such objectives were rarely mentioned in the

early courses while approximately one-fifth of all objectives in the recent courses are of this nature. This in itself appears to be a healthy indication as it signifies that the social studies teacher must be concerned about the reading abilities of the pupils in his charge and can not ignore this until a special reading period appears.

While there were very few general objectives of a social nature in the early courses, these few were stated largely in very general terms and referred to patriotism, good citizenship, or social consciousness. Such general objectives in the present courses are not only more numerous but are also more specific, often expressing the idea of learning social consciousness and developing good social habits through actual participation in social situations.

ANOTHER indication of changing social studies content may be found in the change of titles of courses of study. Of the 130 courses examined for the primary grades during the 1917-24 period, 54 were geography courses, 56 were history courses, and only 20 were general social studies courses. In contrast to this, 140 of the 155 courses constructed for the primary grades since 1934 were entitled "social studies." While the same trend is in evidence in the intermediate grades, it is not so pronounced as in the primary grades. Only five of 234 courses examined which were constructed twenty years ago were entitled social studies while 111 of 200 recent courses examined bear that title. It will be pointed out later that the actual content has not changed from separate subject-matter presentation to this extent, but this change in titles shows that those who are responsible for programs are at least giving lip service to the idea of the unification of the work in the social studies area.

PRIMARY GRADES

THE change in content in the primary grades has been very much in keeping with the change in course titles. This

change in content may be seen from an examination of Table I, in which the number of courses offering each topic in each grade for the two periods 1917-24 and 1934-39 are indicated. The variation in the titles of the courses were ignored in the analysis.

TABLE I

CONTENT OF ALL PRIMARY COURSES OF STUDY EXAMINED

Topic	No. of Courses Presenting Topic					
	1917-24			1934-39		
	Grades			Grades		
	I	II	III	I	II	III
Holidays	20	21	13	8	6	3
Hero Stories	2	6	17	1		
General Geography	6	6	19	4	3	3
Home Geography	3	4	15			8
Primitive Life	5	13	8		6	9
Eskimo Life	4	6	1		3	6
Indian Life	5	12	2	0	9	16
State History and Geography	1		3			5
Child Life in Other Lands			5			5
Home and Family Life	15	6	1	37	9	4
Community Life	12	7	3	24	40	10
Nature Study	6	6	5	5	4	2
Food	6	8	10	4	9	21
Clothing	6	7	8	4	7	21
Shelter	6	7	9	4	6	22
School Life			1	21	4	1
Transportation				10	16	13
Communication				2	6	7

As the table shows, the general trend here is toward the presentation of topics in the primary grades which are within the environment of the child. It will be noted that emphasis has decreased on the topics of holidays, primitive life, Eskimo life, hero stories, general geography, and local geography. Emphasis has greatly increased on the topics of home and family life, community life, school life, food, clothing, shelter, transportation, and communication.

If the frequency of mention in courses of study may be taken as an index of what is being taught, the change in topics most frequently presented in the primary grades may be briefly stated as follows:

Grade I: From holidays, home and family life, and community life to home and family life, community life, and school life.

Grade II: From holidays, primitive life,

and Indian life to community life and transportation.

Grade III: From general geography, hero stories, home geography, and holidays to topics concerned with food, clothing, and shelter.

INTERMEDIATE GRADES

AS WAS mentioned earlier, the change in content in the intermediate grades has not kept pace with the change in course titles. Many courses which have the title of general social studies continue to present geography and history content almost exclusively. There has been, however, a change in the grade placement of this geography and history material. This change has been in the direction of bringing the geography and history content into closer relationship. In the old courses, it was not unusual to find European geography and American history being presented simultaneously. Each was to be taught as a separate and isolated piece of subject matter. This condition is rarely encountered in the newer courses, the more common practice being to attempt to unify geography and history instruction or at least to present the history and geography of a continent or nation simultaneously.

A summary of the occurrence of geography and history topics in all courses of study examined for the intermediate grades is presented in Table II.

The most pronounced changes that may be noted in geography content may be very briefly summarized as follows:

1. The elimination of topics dealing with general or abstract geography.
2. The shift from almost universal disagreement as to what should be presented in Grade IV to rather general agreement on type studies of different environments.
3. The establishment of Grade V as the place to present geography of the western hemisphere and Grade VI as the place to present geography of the eastern hemisphere.

TABLE II

GEOGRAPHY AND HISTORY CONTENT IN INTERMEDIATE COURSES OF STUDY

Topics	No. of Courses Presenting Topic					
	1917-24			1934-39		
	Grades			Grades		
	IV	V	VI	IV	V	VI
GEOGRAPHY TOPICS						
General Geography	21	10	10	1	1	1
Local Geography	21	1	1	5	0	1
State Geography	11	6	16	5	9	6
Type Studies	6	0	0	30	0	0
United States and Possessions	22	28	23	4	25	2
Northern Countries of North America	12	17	15	1	24	1
Southern Countries of North America	7	19	15	1	19	2
Europe	7	19	17		1	27
South America	6	22	17		9	6
Asia	7	19	10		1	13
Africa	7	17	10		1	10
Australia	7	14	11		1	8
HISTORY TOPICS						
Ancient History	1	0	13	5	0	12
The Middle Ages	1	0	15	4	0	15
Modern History Other than U. S.	1	1	14	3	2	17
American History	20	25	10	9	25	4
State History	11	6	11	7	5	7
Local History	2			3	0	2

4. The decline of emphasis on local and state geography.

The changes made in history content have been less marked. Old World backgrounds of American history were placed largely in Grade VI in the early courses and have remained there in the present courses. There has been a tendency toward placing American history in Grade V in the newer courses. In the older courses it occurred almost as often in Grade IV. Some history content has been eliminated from Grade IV, as a majority of the general social studies programs present type studies and have little history content as such.

There continues to be decided disagreement as to whether state and local history should be presented, and if so, in what grade. In courses constructed during both the first and last periods, these topics were presented most often in Grades IV and VI, distributed about evenly.

GENERAL SOCIAL STUDIES

THERE are certain general social studies courses of study for the intermediate grades which have been constructed in recent years which depart completely from the presentation of history and geography,

TABLE III

"GENERAL" TOPICS IN INTERMEDIATE COURSES OF STUDY

Topic	No. of Courses Presenting Topic					
	1925-33			1934-39		
	Grades			Grades		
	IV	V	VI	IV	V	VI
How Man Secures Food	4		2	3	3	2
How Man Secures Clothing	4			2	2	2
How Man Secures Shelter	3	1		4	1	2
Transportation	6	3	2	2	9	8
Communication	4	1	2	2	6	11
Industries		15	8	3	29	4
Discoveries and Inventions		2	2		7	
Living in Machine Age		1	2		3	
Arts of Man (Music, Art, Literature, Architecture)			3	3	9	15
Recreation			1	2	2	3
Education			1	1	2	3
Money and Trade			3		2	6
Health				4	1	1
Safety				1	1	1
Government						3

as such. While such courses are still in the minority, their number has increased markedly since they first began to appear around 1925. None were found in the group examined which were in use prior to 1925, but 19, or 6 per cent, of the courses in the 1925-34 group were of this type, and 36, or 17 per cent, of these courses constructed since 1934 were found not to present history and geography topics.

The units upon which these courses are built are concerned with a variety of topics which deal with various activities of man. While these units may contain history and geography, the continuity is built through some major phase of human endeavor, such as food, transportation or communication.

The investigation of the topics presented in these courses showed that the range of topics presented is rather wide and that very little agreement exists as to the optimum grade placement of the topics which were common to several courses. Topics which were found and their frequency of appearance by grades and periods is shown in Table III.

Probably the most significant trend here is the fact that such topics have appeared and have continued to become more numerous in the past five years. While there is little uniformity in the topics offered, or their grade placement, there does seem to be an indication that units on man's industries and inventions and discoveries are being allocated to Grade V and that units on the arts of man, communication, money and trade, and government are most often offered in Grade VI.

The evidence presented here shows plainly that there has been a decided trend away from the presentation of history and geography as separate subjects in the elementary school. Upon this there appears to be rather general agreement among those persons responsible for course of study construction. There also is almost unanimous agreement that history and geography have no place in the first three grades. It is the consensus of opinion that only those things with which the young child has or may have actual experiences are appropriate for consideration here.

There is quite a difference of opinion, however, as to what the nature of the course should be in the intermediate grades. At present, the majority of courses cling to history and geography as the backbone of the program, but the number of courses which discard these subjects, as such, seem to be increasing steadily.

Pamphlets on Social Problems: Part III

Mary P. Keohane and Maure Goldschmidt

Labor Problems

The C. I. O., What It Is and How It Came to Be. Congress of Industrial Organizations, 1106 Connecticut Ave., Washington. 1939. 54p. 5¢.

Content: origin and development of the C. I. O. and of its affiliated unions; C. I. O. version of split in labor movement; aims of the C. I. O.

Object: to inform; to influence attitudes. *Reliability:* competent. *Timeliness:* relatively permanent. *Readability:* sr. h. s. *Illus.:* photos.

Man Meets Job (Public Affairs Pams.), by P. S. Broughton. Public Affairs Committee (Silver Burdett, 45 E. 17th St., N.Y.) 1941. 30 p. 10¢.

Content: need of public employment exchanges; short-comings of private agencies; history of United States employment service; how to use the employment service; training for defense industries.

Object: to inform. *Reliability:* competent. *Timeliness:* relatively permanent. *Readability:* sr. h. s. *Illus.:* pictographs.

National Labor Relations Board, by Louis

This is the third and concluding instalment of a bibliography prepared at the University of Chicago for the National Association of Secondary-School Principals. Mrs. Keohane is a former high school teacher and is co-author of two widely used textbooks in civics. Dr. Goldschmidt is on the political science faculty of the College of the City of New York. Part I, published in October, pages 447-51, contained an introduction and a list of thirty-three pamphlets on national defense and foreign affairs. Part II, published in November, pages 525-29, listed forty-five pamphlets on domestic problems.

Stark. Council for Social Action, 289 4th Ave., N.Y. 1938. 10¢.

Content: history of United States unions; government interest in collective bargaining before NLRB; organization and functions of NLRB.

Object: to inform. *Reliability:* facts and quotations selected to maintain the author's viewpoint. *Timeliness:* duration of NLRB. *Readability:* better seniors; teachers. *Illus.:* pictorial statistics.

The Public and Strikes (Democracy in Action Series, No. 6). Council for Democracy, 285 Madison Ave., N.Y. 1941. 34p. 10¢.

Content: extent of strikes; causes; wages and prices; public opinion and strikes; suggested solutions.

Object: to inform; to increase national unity through mutual understanding between interest groups. *Reliability:* competent. *Timeliness:* current. *Readability:* good, clear style for sr. h. s.; some jr. h. students. *Illus.:* drawings.

Shall Strikes Be Outlawed? (L. I. D. Pam. Series) by Joel Seidman. League for Industrial Democracy, 112 E. 19th St., N.Y. 1938. 32p. 15¢.

Content: survey of methods of dealing with labor disputes—arbitration, cooling off period, Wagner Act, Australian, British, and Scandinavian practice; outlawing of strikes; efforts needed to remove causes of grievances.

Object: to inform; to influence attitudes. *Reliability:* appears to be accurate but impossible to verify. *Timeliness:* relatively permanent. *Readability:* educated adults; better seniors.

Should Married Women Work? (Public Affairs Pams.), by Ruth Shallcross. Public Affairs Committee (Silver Burdett, 45 E. 17th St., N.Y.) 1940. 29p. 10¢.

Content: why married women work; laws restricting work of married women; other discriminations; effect of women's working on unemployment; effect on home.

Object: to inform; to influence attitudes. *Reliability:* competent. *Timeliness:* relatively permanent. *Readability:* seniors; some juniors. *Illus.:* pictographs.

Local Government

The Example of Fort Wayne. National Consumers' Tax Commission, 310 S. Michigan Ave., Chicago. 1940. 11p. free.

Content: how Fort Wayne spends its money; efficiency; purchasing; service; public relations.

Object: to inform; to influence attitudes. *Reliability:* reliable; good-government slant. *Timeliness:* figures from 1939 reports. *Readability:* due to concrete nature of material, useful for teachers, sr. h. s.; parts for jr. h. s.

Our Cities. National Resources Committee, Washington. 1937. 35p. 10¢.

Content: summary of N. R. C. report, "Our Cities—Their Role in the National Economy;" mutual interests of town and country; faults of cities; trends in urban development; emerging problems of cities; recommendations.

Object: to inform. *Reliability:* competent. *Timeliness:* relatively permanent. *Readability:* sr. h. s. *Illus.:* pictorial statistics.

Forms of Municipal Government. National Municipal League, 309 E. 34th St., N.Y. 1939. 20p. 25¢.

Content: forms of city government—council-manager, strong mayor, commission, weak mayor; advantages of manager form.

Object: to inform; to influence attitudes. *Reliability:* competent. *Timeliness:* relatively permanent. *Readability:* sr. h. s. *Illus.:* many clear charts.

Who's Boss? by Miriam Rober. National Municipal League, 309 E. 34th St., N.Y. 1939. 20p. 25¢.

Content: amount of local taxes; services obtained; how political corruption raises costs, interferes with services; the well-run manager city; extent of manager plan.

Object: to inform; to influence attitudes. *Reliability:* very high. *Timeliness:* relatively permanent. *Readability:* pictures tell story; text explains pictures; either jr. h. s. or sr. h. s. *Illus.:* drawings by Rudolf Modley.

Your Town—How Well Is It Governed? National Consumers' Tax Commission, 310 S. Michigan Ave., Chicago. 1940. 10p. free.

Content: how to appraise the efficiency of municipal government.

Object: to provide a guide to evaluating local government. *Reliability:* written by experts from International City Managers Association. *Timeliness:* relatively permanent. *Readability:* best as a source of suggestions for teachers; good guide to study of one's own city government.

Minority Groups

The American Caste System, by B. G. Gal-

agher. Council for Social Action, 289 4th Ave., N.Y. 1941. 40p. 15¢.

Content: position of the Negro in our society; possible solutions of the problem of Negro-white relations; Christian churches in race relations.

Object: to point out discrepancy between our democratic theory and treatment of Negroes; to lead to reform of the latter. *Reliability:* competent. *Timeliness:* relatively permanent. *Readability:* sr. h. s. *Illus.:* a few.

Black Justice. American Civil Liberties Union, 31 Union Sq., N.Y. 1938. 27p. 10¢.

Content: summary of legal discriminations against Negroes—voting, Jim Crow regulations, education, marriage, jury trial, public accommodations, taxation without representation.

Object: to inform; to influence attitudes. *Reliability:* competent. *Timeliness:* relatively permanent. *Readability:* sr. h. s.

Human Dynamite (Headline Books), by H. C. Wolfe. Foreign Policy Assoc. (Silver Burdett, 45 E. 17th St., N.Y.) 1939. 96p. 25¢.

Content: historical summary of European minority problem and status of problem as of September, 1939; suggestions for solution.

Object: to inform. *Reliability:* competent. *Timeliness:* minority problems of Europe as of September, 1939; out of date. *Readability:* sr. h. s. *Illus.:* maps; pictorial statistics.

The Negro and Defense (Democracy in Action, No. 3). Council for Democracy, 285 Madison Ave., N.Y. 1941. 40p. 10¢.

Content: employment of Negroes in defense industries; Negroes in the armed forces; methods of combating discrimination.

Object: to inform; to decrease discrimination against Negroes. *Reliability:* competent. *Timeliness:* particularly applicable to defense emergency. *Readability:* sr. h. s.; better jr. h. students. *Illus.:* drawings.

Negro Housing in Chicago, by H. R. Cayton. Council for Social Action, 289 4th Ave., N.Y. 1940. 15¢.

Content: history of Negro in Chicago; 1940 Negro area; conditions of Negro housing; means used to restrict Negro area; what to do about it.

Object: to inform; to influence attitudes. *Reliability:* competent. *Timeliness:* good until conditions change. *Readability:* sr. h. s. *Illus.:* photos.

Money and Credit

Banking (Building America). Society for Curriculum Study (Americana Corp., 2 W. 45th St., N.Y.) 1940. 31p. 30¢.

Content: background; importance; regulation by government; current problems and prospects.

Object: to inform. *Reliability:* competent. *Timeliness:* relatively permanent. *Readability:* jr. h. s. *Illus.:* excellent photos.

Credit Unions—the People's Banks (Public Affairs Pams.), by M. S. Stewart. Public Affairs Committee (Silver Burdett, 45 E. 17th St., N.Y.) 1940. 29p. 10¢.

Content: need of credit unions; purposes for which money is lent; organization of a credit union; types of credit unions; advantages to individual and to society; limitations.

Object: to inform. *Reliability:* competent. *Timeliness:* relatively permanent. *Readability:* seniors. *Illus.:* pictographs.

Debts—Good or Bad (Public Affairs Pams.), by M. S. Stewart. Public Affairs Committee (Silver Burdett, 45 E. 17th St., N.Y.) 1939. 32p. 10¢.

Content: function of debts in our economy; effect of depression on debt structure; how debts were adjusted; activities of government; recommendations.

Object: to inform. *Reliability:* based on 20th Century Fund study of "Debts and Recovery, 1937." *Timeliness:* war financing may make this out of date soon. *Readability:* requires a technical vocabulary; advanced seniors. *Illus.:* pictorial statistics.

How Money Works (Public Affairs Pams.), by A. D. Gayer and W. W. Rostow. Public Affairs Committee (Silver Burdett, 45 E. 17th St., N.Y.) 1940. 30p. 10¢.

Content: what money is and the purpose it serves.

Object: to inform. *Reliability:* competent. *Timeliness:* practically permanent. *Readability:* sr. h. s. *Illus.:* pictographs.

Loan Sharks and Their Victims (Public Affairs Pams.), by W. T. Foster. Public Affairs Committee (Silver Burdett, 45 E. 17th St., N.Y.) 1940. 31p. 10¢.

Content: methods of law evasion practiced by loan sharks; illustrations of high cost of illegal loans; contrast with legal companies; directions for prospective borrowers.

Object: to inform; to influence attitudes. *Reliability:* prepared by Chairman of Committee on Consumer Credit Commonwealth of Massachusetts and Director of Pollak Foundation for Economic Research. *Timeliness:* relatively permanent. *Readability:* difficult for 12th grade due to badly organized writing. *Illus.:* pictorial statistics; map; cartoon.

Political Parties

America Votes. Scholastic, 220 E. 42nd St., N.Y. 1940. 40p. 25¢.

Content: how a President is elected; conventions of 1940; 1940 candidates; 1940's platforms; problems and issues of 1940; history of our party system.

Object: to inform. *Reliability:* competent. *Timeliness:* much of material refers specifically to 1940 election. *Readability:* jr. h. s. *Illus.:* photos; diagrams; maps.

Politics (Building America). Society for Curriculum Study (Americana Corp., 2 W. 45th St., N.Y.) 1940. 26p. 30¢.

Content: history of political parties; local politics; organization of parties; ideal presidential candidates; campaigns; the problems of patronage.

Object: to inform. *Reliability:* in places, shows lack of understanding of issues involved; party responsibility for legislation. *Timeliness:* relatively permanent. *Readability:* lacks vividness; too many quotations; too condensed in parts; good authorities quoted. *Illus.:* excellent.

Population

Population Problems. National Resources Committee, Washington. 1938. 28p. 10¢.

Content: summary of N. R. C. report on the problems of a changing population, May, 1938; trend toward stationary population; changing age of population; distribution of population in relation to resources; differential fertility rates; social significance of population changes.

Object: to inform. *Reliability:* competent. *Timeliness:* relatively permanent. *Readability:* sr. h. s. *Illus.:* maps; charts; pictorial statistics.

What the New Census Means (Public Affairs Pams.), by Stuart Chase. Public Affairs Committee (Silver Burdett, 45 E. 17th St., N.Y.) 1940. 30p. 25¢.

Content: slowing down of population growth rate; internal migration; differential fertility rates; reasons for population changes; affects on schools; defense; business; increased government planning and control.

Object: to inform. *Reliability:* competent; based on Census figures. *Timeliness:* relatively permanent. *Readability:* sr. h. s. *Illus.:* pictographs.

Public Opinion

How to Detect and Analyze Propaganda, by C. R. Miller. Town Meeting of the Air, 123 W. 43rd St., N.Y. 1939. 36p. 25¢.

Content: definition of propaganda; conditions under which propaganda is used; importance of channels of communication; seven common propaganda devices; methods of dealing with propaganda devices; methods of dealing with propaganda.

Object: to inform; to influence attitudes. *Reliability:* competent. *Timeliness:* relatively permanent. *Readability:* sr. h. s.

How to Read a Newspaper, by Paul Hutchinson. Council for Social Action, 289 4th Ave., N.Y. 1937. 31p. 10¢.

Content: difference between papers; the canny reader; reading with open eyes; danger signs; difficulties in the way of producing the perfect paper.

Object: to inform. *Reliability:* competent. *Timeliness:* relatively permanent. *Readability:* after a somewhat abstract beginning, it becomes concrete and excellent for sr. h. s. *Illus.:* one map.

Propaganda—Good and Bad—for Democracy, by C. R. Miller and Louis Minsky. Survey Association, 112 E. 19th St., N.Y. 1939. 16p. 10¢.

Content: summary of seven common devices of propagandists; summary of the discussion on propaganda at the Williamstown Institute of Human Relations, held at Williams College, Aug. 27 to Sept. 1, 1939.

Object: to inform; to influence attitudes. *Reliability:* competent. *Timeliness:* relatively permanent. *Readability:* sr. h. s. *Illus.:* photos, cartoons.

Taxation

Consumer Taxes and Business Activity. National Consumers' Tax Commission, 310 S. Michigan Ave., Chicago. 1939. 11p. free.

Content: proportion of taxes that are "hidden;" evils of "hidden" taxes; effects of direct taxes on spending; government spending; private spending.

Object: to inform; to influence attitudes. *Reliability:* sources quoted in footnotes; some doubtful statements. *Timeliness:* until newer figures are out. *Readability:* educated adults.

Death by Tariff, by R. L. Buell, Univ. of Chicago Press, 5750 Ellis Ave., Chicago. 40p. 25¢.

Content: analysis of various types of protectionism; tariffs; subsidies; relief payments; bonus; inspection regulations; chain store taxation; port of entry laws, et cetera; plea for removal of restrictions.

Object: to inform; to influence attitudes. *Reliability:* competent. *Timeliness:* relatively permanent. *Readability:* assumes understanding of such terms as "protectionism," retaliatory tariffs," "reciprocal tariff," "domicile," otherwise for sr. h. s.

The Tax Picture Today. National Consumers' Tax Commission, 310 S. Michigan Ave., Chicago. 1939. 33p. free.

Content: federal taxes—history, types in 1938, amount collected by each; state taxes—history, status in 1938; local taxes.

Object: to inform. *Reliability:* source reliable, conclusions when drawn are substantiated. *Timeliness:* relatively permanent. *Readability:* concrete character of material makes this readable for sr. h. s. *Illus.:* pictorial diagrams.

Taxes (Building America). Society for Curriculum Study (Americana Corp., 2 W. 45th St., N.Y.) 1939. 32p. 30¢.

Content: need for taxes; types of taxes; proposals for change.

Object: to inform. *Reliability:* competent. *Timeliness:* figures need revision to keep up-to-date; much relatively permanent. *Readability:* jr. h. s. *Illus.:* excellent photos.

Taxes and You (You and Industry Series). National Assoc. of Manufacturers, 14 W. 49th St., N.Y. 1940. 16p. free.

Content: rising cost of government; taxation.

Object: to inform; to influence attitudes; *Reliability:* misleading in that disadvantages of public expenditure are stressed while no effort is made to point out that some public expenditures may be more economical and social than private. *Timeliness:* Relatively permanent. *Readability:* sr. h. s.; some jr. h. s. *Illus.:* pictorial statistics.

You Are a Taxpayer, by Mabel Newcomer. Vassar College Press, Poughkeepsie. 1939. 37p. 35¢.

Content: what you get for your taxes; justification of taxes in terms of ability, benefit, social control and the need for money; incidence of taxes; the unbalanced budget and the future of taxes.

Object: to inform. *Reliability:* author is professor of economics at Vassar. *Timeliness:* large part of relatively permanent interest. *Readability:* sr. h. s. *Illus.:* pictorial statistics; charts.

Technology and Social Change

Federal Relations to Research. National Resources Committee, Washington. 1939. 30p. 10¢.

Content: relation of Federal Government to research, a national resource; quantity and range of government research; problems of research personnel; cooperation with non-federal research agencies; recommendations for increased government support of research.

Object: to inform. *Reliability:* competent. *Timeliness:* relatively permanent. *Readability:* sr. h. s.

The Future in America (You and Industry Series). National Assoc. of Manufacturers, 14 W. 49th St., N.Y. 1940. 15p. free.

Content: summarizes technological progress; industry in research; predicts brilliant future for America based on new inventions and efforts of individualists.

Object: to inform; to influence attitudes. *Reliability:* unverifiable predictions of future; otherwise reliable. *Timeliness:* relatively permanent. *Readability:* sr. h. s.; some jr. h. s. *Illus.:* pictorial statistics.

Labor, Machines and Depressions (L. I. D. Pam. Series), by A. B. Lewis. League for Industrial Democracy, 112 E. 19th St., N.Y. 1939. 31p. 10¢.

Content: labor-capitalist struggle in modern indus-

try resulting in reduced wages, increased prices, the speed-up of labor, shifting of industry, substitution of machinery for men; data on reduced employment in various industries; under-consumption responsible for unemployment; suggestions for combating the contradictions of capitalism.

Object: to inform; to influence attitudes. *Reliability:* presents the controversial under-consumption theory of the business cycle. *Timeliness:* relatively permanent. *Readability:* better seniors.

Machinery and the American Standard of Living. Machinery and Allied Products Institute, 221 N. LaSalle St., Chicago. 1939. 87p. free.

Content: America, a product of the machine; the machine a creator of jobs; the machine-labor services; the standard of living dependent on technological advance, et cetera.

Object: to inform; to influence attitudes. *Reliability:* facts are selected to support a thesis; first part is able refutation of the charge that machines cause unemployment; last part, of very doubtful reliability. *Timeliness:* relatively permanent. *Readability:* first part for sr. h. s. *Illus.:* sketches; pictorial statistics.

Machines and Tomorrow's World (Public Affairs Pams.), by W. F. Ogburn. Public Affairs Committee (Silver Burdett, 45 E. 17th St., N.Y.) 1938. 31p. 10¢.

Content: influence of technology on social change; technological trends in various industries; importance of planning.

Object: to inform; to influence attitudes. *Reliability:* prepared by National Resources Committee on basis of report of subcommittee on Technology. *Timeliness:* relatively permanent. *Readability:* vivid; concrete; good for sr. h. s. though some difficult expressions. *Illus.:* pictorial statistics; photos.

Men and Machines (You and Industry Series). National Assoc. of Manufacturers, 14 W. 49th St., N.Y. 1940. 22p. free.

Content: contrasts standard of living in pre-machine and machine eras.

Object: to inform, to influence attitudes. *Reliability:* minimal treatment of technological unemployment. *Timeliness:* relatively permanent. *Readability:* sr. h. s. *Illus.:* charts; pictorial statistics.

Unemployment

Jobs after Forty (Public Affairs Pams.), by Beulah Amidon. Public Affairs Committee (Silver Burdett, 45 E. 17th St., N.Y.) 1939. 32p. 10¢.

Content: facts on age discriminations; why youth is preferred; what can be done about it.

Object: to inform; to influence attitudes. *Reliability:* prepared on basis of materials supplied by Department of Labor for Committee on Employment Problems of Older Workers. *Timeliness:* relatively permanent. *Readability:* subject matter generally uninteresting to seniors; story form aids readability. *Illus.:* pictorial statistics.

Jobs or the Dole, by Neal de Nood. Univ. of Chicago Press. 5750 Ellis Ave., Chicago. rev. ed., 1938. 25¢.

Content: who the unemployed are; what has been done for them; relief; public works; unemployment insurance; various plans for dealing with the unemployment problem.

Object: to inform. *Reliability:* competent. *Timeliness:* while unemployment remains high. *Readability:* style exceptionally good, easy, conversational, concrete; jr. h. s.; sr. h. s. *Illus.:* original cartoon-sketches.

This Business of Relief, by Beulah Amidon. Council for Social Action, 289 4th Ave., N.Y. 1940. 40p. 15¢.

Content: predepression relief; local relief in early 30's; the FERA; the CWA; WPA; Social Security.

Object: to inform; to influence attitudes. *Reliability:* author well known in social work and an associate editor of Survey Graphic. *Timeliness:* much relatively permanent; statement of current situation subject to change. *Readability:* well written; sr. h. s. *Illus.:* one graph.

Notes and News

NCSS in 1942

Officers of the National Council for the Social Studies for 1942, elected at the Indianapolis annual meeting on November 22, are: Roy A. Price, president; Allen Y. King, first vice-president; I. James Quillen, second vice-president; Hilda Taba and Burr W. Phillips, directors.

New York City was selected as the place for the 1942 annual meeting, to be held November 26-28.

National Council at Chicago

The American Historical Association and the National Council for the Social Studies will jointly sponsor two sessions during the AHA annual meeting at the Stevens Hotel, Chicago, December 29-31. Both joint sessions will be held on Wednesday, the thirty-first. The program, arranged by Elmer Ellis of the University of Missouri, is as follows:

10:30 a.m. Morning Session

Theme: "New Histories for American High Schools."

Chairman: Robert E. Keohane, University of Chicago.

"Pan-American History," Robert S. Ellwood, Illinois State Normal University.

"Pan-Pacific Relations in Senior High School History," Mary Elizabeth Knight, Garfield High School, Seattle, Washington.

"Canada and British Empire History," Erling M. Hunt, Columbia University.

Discussion: A. C. Krey, University of Minnesota.

1:00 p.m. Luncheon Conference

Chairman: Fremont P. Wirth, George Peabody College for Teachers.

"Historical Perspective on Our Teaching of the World War," Howard R. Anderson, Cornell University.

Discussion: Boyd C. Shafer, Stout Institute, Menomonie, Wisconsin.

The Local Arrangements Committee for these two sessions consists of: Henrietta H. Fernitz, Chicago Teachers College, chairman; J. W. Gannaway, Winnetka; Walter L. Myers, Joliet; Margaret Henderson, Highland Park; Henry McHargue, Gary; Muriel Lochbiler, Riverside; Ethel May, Ray Lussenhop, Sarah Burns, Robert E. Keohane, and Mrs. Lucie H. Schacht, Chicago.

National Council at New York

The American Political Science Association will hold its annual meeting at the Hotel Pennsylvania, New York City, December 29-31. The Committee on the Social Studies of the Association has again invited the National Council for the Social Studies, through its Civic Education Committee, to share sponsorship of two sessions. Harrison Thomas, member of both committees, was assigned chief responsibility for planning the joint programs, which are as follows:

8:00 a.m. Breakfast

Theme: "Training for Citizenship Outside the Classroom."

Chairman: Harrison Thomas, Public Schools, New York City.

"Through Student Participation in Community Activities," Mildred P. Ellis, Framingham High School, Framingham, Massachusetts; and James K. Pollock, University of Michigan.

"Through Student Participation in School Government," Mary Meade, Tottenville High School, New York City; and S. P. McCutchen, New York University.

10:00 a.m. Round-Table

Theme: "The Social Studies and Training for Citizenship."

Chairman: John Vieg, Iowa State College.

Participants:

Sidney Barnett, High School of Music and Art, New York City

Franklin L. Burdette, Butler University

M. M. Chambers, National Youth Administration

Harold M. Dorr, University of Michigan

Cleora Sutch, Scarsdale High School, Scarsdale, New York

Hilda M. Watters, Western Illinois State Teachers College

The Local Arrangements Committee for the two joint sessions consists of: Paul Balser, Christopher Columbus High School, Bronx, chairman; Julian Aldrich, Manhattan; Edwin M. Barton, Elizabeth, New Jersey; J. Montgomery Gambrill, Manhattan; I. L. Gordon, Brooklyn; Flora A. Gunnerson, Hempstead, Long Island; Irving Levine, Brooklyn; Clara Levy, Newark, New Jersey; James V. McGill, Queens; Samuel Meyers, Waterbury, Connecticut; Jennie Pingrey, Hastings-on-Hudson; and Samuel Steinberg, Brooklyn.

Lower Hudson

At a meeting on October 31 the Lower Hudson History Teachers' Association and the Social Studies Section of the Westchester County Teachers Association agreed upon a working arrangement intended to preserve the integrity of both organizations but eliminate duplication of effort between them in view of their overlapping areas. Both groups will have identical officers, and their meetings will be arranged by joint committees. Dues paid to either organization will entitle one to participate in the activities of both. It was further decided that future meetings should emphasize teaching procedures and methods of evaluation rather than development of content outlines.

J. P.

New York City

The Association of Teachers of the Social Studies in the City of New York met October 18 at City College. James Marshall, president of the Board of Education, spoke on "The Role of the Social Studies in the Crisis of Democracy." He denounced the hypocrisy of those who pay only lip service to the Bill of Rights while not observing it. He urged more realistic content for the school curriculum and democratization of student government. The meeting concluded with a discussion of needed curriculum changes led by Oscar Dombrow of Christopher Columbus High School and Mary McGinnis of Bay Ridge High School.

S. I.

Maryland

The History Teachers' Association of Maryland held its annual fall meeting at Baltimore on October 24. The second issue of the *Maryland Historiographer*, newly established official journal of the Association, was presented at the meeting. Most of the magazine's twenty pages dealt with Latin America and reports from several schools in Maryland concerning their current practices in teaching Pan-Americanism. The meeting was addressed by John C. Patterson of the United States Office of Education, who dealt with "The Role of the Teacher in Cultural Relations with Latin America."

Officers elected for 1941-42 were as follows: president, Harry Bard, supervisor of history,

secondary schools, Baltimore; vice-president, Olive Simpson, Alleghany High School, Cumberland; secretary, Wilson Valentine, Baltimore Polytechnic Institute; treasurer, Mrs. Gladys T. Hopkins, Towson High School.

W. V.

Ohio

The Greater Cleveland Council for the Social Studies held its first meeting of the current school year on November 7. Walter Myer of Washington, D.C., spoke on "Latin America—Implications for the Social Studies Classroom."

The Council is also cooperating with the Institute for Pacific Relations and the Cleveland Foreign Affairs Council in about four meetings during the first week of December.

Officers for the present year are: president, Irl Fast, Cleveland Heights High School; vice-president, Clarence Schettler, Western Reserve University; recording secretary, Ida Dennis, Hough School, Cleveland; corresponding secretary, Florence Rosencrans, Collinwood Junior High School, Cleveland; treasurer, Marjorie Aborn, South High School. Dr. Schettler is also editor of *The Reporter*, which is published four times each year by the Council.

Howard Robinson of Oberlin College addressed the social science group of the Central Ohio Teachers Association at their Dayton meeting, October 29. His topic was "The Present British Commonwealth."

F. C. Landsittel of Ohio State University addressed the group during the business session on the desirability of affiliating with the National Council for the Social Studies. The responsibility for publicizing the National Council among all social studies teachers in central Ohio was delegated to William Van Til and Charles Young of Columbus.

Officers elected for 1941-42 were: Mary Moore, New Madison, chairman; Charles Young, Columbus, vice-chairman; Glenn Duckwall, Centerville, secretary.

G. D., W. V. T.

Wisconsin

The Wisconsin History Teachers Association met in Milwaukee on Friday, November 7, in connection with the annual W. E. A.

convention. Grace Walsh of Chippewa Falls, chairman, arranged the program, which began with a luncheon in the Pfister Hotel. Paul J. Mundie of Marquette University spoke on "The Conservation of Human Resources."

The afternoon session was addressed by Henry Johnson, professor emeritus of history, Teachers College, Columbia University, on "The Functional Approach to History," after which Justin Williams of River Falls State Teachers College led the discussion. The program closed with a round-table on "American Isolation Reconsidered," directed by Laura Sutherland, Eau Claire State Teachers College. E. H. E.

Missouri

The Missouri Council for the Social Studies will meet December 5 at the DeSoto Hotel, St. Louis, during the fall convention of the Missouri State Teachers Association. An address on "The Meaning of Current Events" by Colonel C. H. Muller will provide social studies teachers with a firsthand picture of defense efforts from the Army's point of views. There will also be a discussion of "The New Missouri Social Studies Curriculum for High Schools," led by Guy V. Price of Kansas City Teachers College, and reports on the Indianapolis meeting of the National Council. President James S. McKee will preside at the business session, at which new officers will be elected.

The current issue of the *Missouri Social Studies Bulletin* is devoted to the theme, "Public Policy and Educational Purpose in Our Contemporary Crisis." G. V. P.

Spokane

The Spokane Section of the National Council for the Social Studies has held one meeting and planned four more for the current school year. Attention throughout the year will focus primarily on the application of the new law requiring the teaching of state history. Speakers at the opening meeting, October 2, were members of the group: Ruth West of Lewis and Clark High School and James Elsensohn of John E. Rogers High School. The next meeting, to be held on December 4, will be in charge of the elementary school members of the group, with Sara Weisman and Jessie

Ewing as chairmen. Officers for 1941-42 are Thad Byrne, president; T. G. Nogle, vice-president; and Mary Sidney Mitchell, secretary-treasurer. M. S. M.

Southern California

The annual fall meeting of the Southern California Social Science Association was held at the University of Southern California, November 8. During the morning six concurrent section meetings considered varying aspects of "Today's Trends in the Social Studies." At the luncheon session, John de la Haye, president of the Association, presided over a discussion of "Propaganda and the Social Sciences."

Bill of Rights Sesquicentennial

Inasmuch as 1941 has marked the one-hundred-and-fiftieth anniversary of the adoption of the first ten amendments to the United States Constitution, several reports have been received of its observance by schools and patriotic organizations. Last February "Bill of Rights Week" was observed in all New York schools by action of the state legislature. This observance is to be repeated annually during the week that includes Washington's birthday. The teacher's manual, *Our Heritage of Freedom*, issued last February by the New York State Education Department, is now out of print, but a new edition will be ready for February, 1942.

Following the example of New York State, the last session of the General Assembly in Pennsylvania passed an act requiring the observance of one week during the school year as "Bill of Rights Week." This year the week to be observed is December 15-19. The committee which is preparing materials for the observance consists of R. O. Hughes of the Pittsburgh Public Schools, Carl M. Aretz of the Philadelphia Public Schools, and four staff members of the State Department of Public Instruction.

The "Highschool Service" page of the *NEA Journal* for December is devoted to teaching suggestions and guides to teaching materials dealing with the Bill of Rights and the civil liberties.

An excellent guide to the general literature on "Civil Liberties and Democracy" was pub-

lished as a 20-page supplement to the July 15 issue of the *Booklist*. Copies may be secured at 25 cents each from the American Library Association, 520 North Michigan Avenue, Chicago.

The timely appearance of the National Council's new source unit, *Teaching the Civil Liberties*, will also be welcomed by social studies teachers who wish to develop with their students a deeper understanding of, and loyalty to, the ideals embodied in the Bill of Rights. This unit was cooperatively prepared by graduate students at the Harvard Graduate School of Education working under the direction of Howard E. Wilson. It was published on November 15 as NCSS Bulletin No. 16. Copies may be secured for 30 cents each from the secretary's office, 1201 Sixteenth St., N.W., Washington.

Curriculum Developments

New York. Comprehensive reorganization of the twelve-year social studies program in New York State is now under way. Locally developed course outlines for Grades VII through XII may be submitted to the State Department; if approved, they have the same status—in allowing Regents' credits—as do the courses prepared by the Department. Schools which do not work out their own curricula will be expected to follow the content outlined by the State Department in its Bulletin III, containing suggested organization of units for the six secondary grades and scheduled for publication this month.

Syllabi for the Grade VII and Grade X courses have already appeared; those for Grades VIII and XI will be ready later during the school year; and those for Grades IX and XII are to come out next year. The suggested course for Grade VII consists of eight units on the school, the community, and the state. That for Grade X presents units in world history.

Already published, and available at 10 cents each, are the following:

Bulletin I (revised, April 1941), *An Approach to the Organization of a Social Studies Program for Secondary Schools*. University Bulletin 1203.

Bulletin II, *A Framework of Content for the Secondary School Program in Social Studies*. University Bulletin 1189.

Coordinated with the new secondary pro-

gram, and to some extent preceding it, are the new developments in elementary school social studies summarized in two Bulletins of the Division of Elementary Education, also priced at 10 cents each:

An Approach to a Social Studies Program in the Elementary Schools (1938). University Bulletin 1160.

A Summary of Progress in the Development of a Social Studies Program for Elementary Schools (1941). University Bulletin 1210.

New Jersey. A new syllabus in Problems of American Democracy has just been issued by the New Jersey State Department of Public Instruction. The course has unusual importance because it is required of every eleventh- or twelfth-grade pupil in New Jersey high schools. The new outline of content replaces all earlier syllabi which have been published by the New Jersey State Department in the field of Problems of American Democracy since 1925. The committee which wrote the new syllabus had worked on it for two years before it was "unveiled" last July 17 at a conference held at Montclair State Teachers College.

The syllabus contains: (1) a definition of democracy, (2) a list of objectives, (3) a section on methods, (4) seventeen units, and (5) an extensive bibliography. Each of the units deals with a major problem, but their several approaches and organizations differ. Teachers are urged to select the units and arrange them in sequence according to their timeliness and pupils' needs.

Copies of the syllabus may be secured, at 75 cents each, from the State Department of Public Instruction, Trenton, New Jersey.

Minnesota. The Minnesota Department of Education has recommended that American history in Grade XI and Social Problems in Grade XII be taught by the same instructor in the six-year high schools in the state.

Missouri. A new curriculum in secondary school social studies is embodied in Bulletin 4A, *Social Studies*, in the series, "Missouri at Work on the Public School Curriculum," published by the State Education Department. The curriculum originated in state meetings of social studies teachers independently of any official authority. Its preparation and publication subsequently received the sanction of the State Department. Chairman of the committee which wrote the curriculum is W. Francis

English of Fulton. Copies of the Bulletin may be secured without charge from Lloyd W. King, state superintendent of schools, Jefferson City.

Fort Worth. The Fort Worth Public Schools have recently issued new courses of study for Grades I, IV, and VII-IX. The revisions include "the simplification of unit objectives and a closer relationship between suggested objectives and suggested teaching activities."

Washington. The Washington legislature recently required that all pupils in the state study Washington history before graduation from the eighth grade and from high school. To provide suitable materials for such study a state-wide committee, headed by Ruth West of Spokane, is now at work.

Los Angeles. A course of study on "Appreciating Democracy" (43 pages, mimeographed) for Grades VII-XII is available from the Los Angeles Public Schools, free on request.

Bibliography of Courses of Study. The annual list of "Outstanding Curriculum Materials" prepared by the Curriculum Laboratory of Teachers College, Columbia University, is published in the October issue of the *Curriculum Journal*, pages 263-67. The list includes elementary courses in social studies from thirteen school systems and secondary courses in social studies from four systems. For each course information is given as to date, form, pages, price, and grade level. Cities represented in the social studies lists include Cincinnati, Hartford, Sacramento, Salt Lake City, Tacoma, Waco, and Washington.

Contests for High School Pupils

The League of Nations Association last year broadened the scope of its annual high school contest to include pupil papers written in response to questions covering a wide range of peace plans and problems of world organization. More than 7,000 pupils from 1,020 schools participated. The winner, Warren E. Schulz, a seventeen-year-old senior from Ilion, New York, received a trip to South America. His teacher was Ruth Gordon. Second prize went to Lane McGovern of Winchester, Massachusetts. For information concerning the 1941-42 contest, write to Mrs. Harrison Thomas, Educational Department, League of Na-

tions Association, 8 West 40th Street, New York.

Announcement of a literary contest for high school and college students is made by the editors of the quarterly, *Common Ground*. According to Louis Adamic, editor-in-chief, \$100 in cash prizes and ten subscriptions to *Common Ground* will be awarded the winning contestants. The publication office is at 222 Fourth Avenue, New York, and entries must be submitted before February 15, 1942. Additional information may be obtained by writing to the contest editor.

British History in America

"In order to choose intelligently between the tradition of freedom and the so-called 'new order' one must have knowledge and understanding of the history of our traditions, and . . . the study of English institutions and the institutional relations of England and our own country is the best way to do so fully." This thesis is well developed by Hettie A. Withey in the leading article in the *Southern California Social Studies Review* for October. The second article in the same issue is "A Teaching Unit on the British Empire" by Don C. Cline. This unit is accompanied by an annotated bibliography for teachers of British history. Single copies of the *Review*, which is published by the Southern California Social Science Association, may be obtained for 25 cents from the managing editor, William H. Feeler, Monrovia Union High School, Monrovia, California.

For Building Morale

. . . 3. *Vitalize the Social Studies Program:* Every school system should have a special committee of social studies teachers and supervisors inquiring into improved ways and means of teaching the meaning of democracy, of improving student understanding of dictatorship, of relating national defense and the new social and economic problems now emerging to the regular courses in civics, social problems, history, etc. This committee should bring to the attention of teachers all new and reliable teaching aids, books, pamphlets, discussion outlines, bibliographies, etc., as well as preparing teaching aids for local use.

The quotation above is taken from *How to Participate*, the first publication of the School and College Civilian Morale Service, recently created by the United States Office of Educa-

tion at the request of President Roosevelt.

In addition to this suggestion to social studies teachers, *How to Participate* includes a statement of "Needs to Be Served" plus numerous other suggestions as to what schools, colleges, libraries, and community forums can do. Copies will be sent free on request by the Office of Education, Washington.

On Foreign Policy

In the international crisis which faces the United States, teachers of social studies face a heavy responsibility. To help in meeting this need, the American Council on Education last year established the Committee on Materials of Instruction, composed of outstanding social scientists with Phillips Bradley of Queens College as chairman, and charged the committee to prepare impartial, authentic, and useful material which might be integrated into the curriculum. Two pamphlets have been issued. *The Teacher and International Relations* is a 24-page document which outlines a point of view for teachers in this country during the crisis, and suggests methods which may aid them in doing a better job. It sells at ten cents a copy. *American Isolation Reconsidered* is a 200-page resource unit which traces the history of American neutrality from 1793 to 1941 and points out the issues involved in the decision we have faced about peace and war in 1812, 1914 and 1941. *American Isolation Reconsidered* also contains a section suggesting activities for teachers and students and a compact classified bibliography. It sells at fifty cents a copy. Both pamphlets can be obtained from the American Council on Education, 744 Jackson Place, Washington, D.C. (*Curriculum Journal*, November, 1941, p. 293.)

Institute Suspends

The Institute for Propaganda Analysis has suspended publication of its monthly bulletin for the duration of the war crisis "in the light of President Roosevelt's announcement that the country is now involved in the 'shooting-stage' of war." Institute officials explained that to continue objective analysis of propaganda during the present period might impair the national defense effort and result in serious misunderstanding. After the war period, its activities will be resumed.

Personal

James Westfall Thompson, professor of history at the University of California and president of the American Historical Association, died on September 30. He has been succeeded as president of the AHA by *Arthur Meier Schlesinger* of Harvard University.

I. Howell Kane, head of social studies at Central High School, Trenton, New Jersey, a contributor to *SOCIAL EDUCATION*, and New Jersey's representative on the Public Relations Committee of the National Council, died on October 18. His place on the Public Relations Committee has been taken by *George B. Robinson* of New Brunswick.

Guy Stanton Ford retired in August as president of the University of Minnesota and became on September 1 executive secretary of the American Historical Association and editor of the *American Historical Review*, with offices in the Library of Congress, Washington. In virtue of his position, Dr. Ford succeeded Conyers Read as a member and secretary of the executive board of *SOCIAL EDUCATION*.

Charles Merrifield, formerly assistant in political science at Stanford University and a member of the National Council's Committee on Civic Education, is now educational director of the Council for Democracy, New York City.

Joseph Kise, head of the political science department of Moorhead State Teachers College and a member of the National Council, has just completed a year of service to the causes of education and citizenship as Minnesota state commander of the American Legion.

Edward G. Olsen, formerly of Colgate University, is now head of education at Russell Sage College. His place at Colgate has been filled by *Elbert Burr, Jr.*, formerly assistant at Syracuse University.

Chester McA. Destler lost his position at South Georgia State Teachers College as a result of the "purge" instigated by Governor Eugene Talmadge. Dr. Destler is now on the faculty of Elmira College.

William M. Alexander, formerly assistant director of curriculum, Cincinnati public schools, and a member of the National Council's Curriculum Committee, is now associate professor of education at the University of Tennessee.

Paul R. Hanna is now on leave from Stanford University to serve on the staff of the National Resources Planning Board in Washington. His courses at Stanford are being taught by Aubrey Haan.

SOCIAL EDUCATION—Bound

With this issue Volume V of SOCIAL EDUCATION is concluded. Subscribers wishing to have their eight 1941 copies bound in sturdy maroon buckram, with gold lettering, may send them with \$1.50 plus return postage and return shipping directions to the Eggeling Bookbindery, 31 East Tenth Street, New York City. Copies for any one of the earlier volumes may also be bound at the same rate.

Recent Magazine Articles on Teaching the Social Studies

- Bowden, Hilda, Coyle, Helena M., and McLaren, M. Ruth, "How Libraries Serve History Classes, *The School* (Secondary Edition), XXX:140-50, October, 1941. A program of extensive reading by pupils studying history in Grades IX, X, and XI in Windsor, Ontario, is described. Many titles of books and periodicals used are cited.
- Brown, William B., "National Defense: A Timely Unit for Los Angeles Seniors," *Clearing House*, XVI:71-74, October, 1941. The author is director of curriculum of the Los Angeles school system.
- Carroll, Joseph C., "The Lecture System as a History Teaching Device," *Education*, LXII:96-102, October, 1941. Refutes the critics of the lecture method; insists that high school pupils have more ability than their teachers credit them with; argues that the inadequacy of history textbooks obliges teachers to lecture; describes characteristics of good lectures.
- Church, Alfred M., "The Schools and the Far East," *Harvard Educational Review*, XI:431-46, October, 1941. What teaching is now done in American schools about the Far East, with suggested grade placement of topics from Grade I through XII.
- Clark, Harold F., "A Comprehensive Program of Consumer Education in the School," *Curriculum Journal*, XII:253-56, October, 1941. Consumer education can be taught as part of traditional school subjects; or a separate course can be offered; but neither plan is as desirable as a twelve-year sequence of studies organized around "basic areas of living"—especially food, clothing, and shelter.
- Gernant, Leonard, "Let Your Government Help You," *Michigan Education Journal*, XIX:178-81, October, 1941. A wealth of specific suggestions for studying state government in Michigan, many of which would also apply in other states. Emphasizes use of state government publications and pupil visits to governmental agencies.
- Irwin, Leonard B., "Pamphlet Material for Social Studies Courses," *Social Studies*, XXXII:320-21, Novem-

ber, 1941. Specific suggestions with special emphasis on the publications of the federal government.

Michener, James A., "What Are We Fighting For?" *Progressive Education*, XVIII:342-48, November, 1941. A statement of the essential elements in American democracy supplemented by specific suggestions as to what the schools must do to preserve democracy.

Michener, James A., "Who Is Virgil T. Fry?" *Clearing House*, XVI:67-70, October, 1941. Social studies teachers who attempt to solve the riddle of Virgil T. Fry will certainly find their own teaching improved.

Overn, A. V., "The 'Young Jurist' Looks at the Duty to Protect Life," *Journal of Education*, CXXIV:231-32, October, 1941. The author has simplified court cases by removing as much of the legal language as possible so that teachers may use the cases for class discussion in such a way that certain standards of social conduct can be emphasized.

Sister M. de Paul, "Suggestions for a Tentative Program in Consumer Education," *Education*, LXII:103-106, October, 1941. Suggests specific topics for studying consumer problems on the elementary, intermediate, junior high school, and senior high school levels, with emphasis on vertical articulation.

Thayer, V. T., "How the Social-Studies Teacher Can Foster and Defend Democracy," *Harvard Educational Review*, XI:459-72, October, 1941. Cites current teaching trend from neutral objectivity to emphasis on philosophy and values; warns against danger of overdoing the trend; declares that "stress upon the formulation of a democratic philosophy will enhance once more the importance of history in the curriculum."

Wilcox, Francis O., "The Social-Science Teacher and the World Crisis," *Journal of Higher Education*, XII:353-59. Advocates curbing of intellectual individualism as fascism has curbed economic individualism.

Woolston, Loren S., "The Social Studies in General Education," *The School Executive*, LX:24-25, May, 1941.

Worlton, James T., "Conservation in the School Curriculum," *Curriculum Journal*, XII:260-62, October, 1941. Emphasizes human resources as well as natural resources. Specifies topics appropriate for study in connection with regular social studies courses on each grade level from kindergarten through high school.

Readers are invited to send in items—programs and accounts of meetings, curriculum changes and classroom experiments, or personal items of general interest—for "Notes and News." Items for February should be sent in by January 1. Send to W. F. Murra, 1201 Sixteenth Street N.W., Washington.

Contributors to this issue include: Elizabeth Carey, Elizabeth Cooley, Glenn Duckwall, E. H. Evans, J. T. Greenan, Ella Hawkinson, R. O. Hughes, Saul Israel, Mildred McChesney, Mary S. Mitchell, G. V. Price, Wilson Valentine, and William Van Til.

Sight and Sound in Social Studies

William H. Hartley

December Radio Programs

Listed below are the outstanding radio programs of interest to social studies teachers and their classes. All program times are Eastern Standard. (Note that the Columbia School of the Air is broadcast in the Eastern time zone at 9:15 A.M.; Central time zone, 2:30 P.M.; Mountain time zone, 9:30 A.M.; and Pacific time zone, 1:30 P.M.) The initials CBS indicate programs on the Columbia Broadcasting System. Those marked NBC-Red are broadcast over the Red network of the National Broadcasting Company, while those marked NBC-Blue may be heard over the Blue Network. Mutual Broadcasting System programs are indicated by the letters MBS.

Sundays

- 11:15-11:45 A.M. "Hidden History" NBC-Blue
- 12:00-12:15 P.M. Foreign Policy Association Program NBC-Blue
- 12:15-12:30 P.M. "I'm an American" NBC-Blue
- 1:30-2:00 P.M. "The World Is Yours" (Smithsonian Institution) NBC-Blue
- 2:00-3:00 P.M. "Wake Up America" NBC-Blue
- 2:30-3:00 P.M. University of Chicago Round Table NBC-Red
- 3:15-3:30 P.M. H. V. Kaltenborn NBC-Red
- 6:45-7:00 P.M. Mrs. F. D. Roosevelt NBC-Blue
- 7:30-7:45 P.M. "News for the Americas" (Pearson and Allen) NBC-Blue
- 8:00-8:30 P.M. "American Forum of the Air" WOR

Mondays

- 8:15-9:45 A.M. "Americans at Work" CBS. Dec. 1, "Automobile Workers"; Dec. 8, "Weathermen"; Dec. 15, "Makers of Books"
- 6:00-6:15 P.M. Edwin C. Hill CBS
- 7:30-8:00 P.M. "Cavalcade of America" NBC-Red
- 10:30-11:00 P.M. "National Radio Forum" NBC-Blue

Tuesdays

- 9:15-9:45 A.M. "Music of the Americas" CBS. Dec. 2, Religious Music; Dec. 9, "Transportation"; Dec. 16, "The Spirit of the City"
- 3:15-3:45 P.M. "University of Life" MBS
- 3:45-4:00 P.M. "What Freedom Means" CBS
- 7:45-8:00 P.M. H. V. Kaltenborn NBC-Red
- 8:00-8:30 P.M. "Treasury Hour" NBC-Blue

Wednesdays

- 9:15-9:45 A.M. "New Horizons" CBS. Dec. 3, "Cradle of New World Freedom" (Simon Bolivar); Dec. 10, "Land of Vast Horizons" (Brazil); Dec. 17, "Liberators of the South" (José de San Martín and Bernardo O'Higgins)
- 9:45-10:00 A.M. "Stories That America Loves" CBS
- 6:00-6:15 P.M. Edwin C. Hill CBS
- 10:00-10:15 P.M. Raymond Gram Swing MBS

Thursdays

- 9:15-9:45 A.M. "Tales from Far and Near" CBS. Dec. 4, "The Story of San Martín"; Dec. 11, "Selected American Ballads"
- 11:45-12:00 M. "What Can I Do?" (Women and National Defense) NBC-Red
- 6:15-6:30 P.M. William L. Shirer CBS
- 7:45-8:00 P.M. H. V. Kaltenborn NBC-Blue
- 8:00-8:30 P.M. "The March of Time" NBC-Blue
- 9:30-10:30 P.M. "America's Town Meeting of the Air" NBC-Blue
- 10:30-10:45 P.M. "Ahead of the Headlines" NBC-Blue

Fridays

- 9:15-9:45 A.M. "This Living World" CBS. Dec. 5, "Propaganda"; Dec. 12, "Expenses of Democracy"; Dec. 19, "The World After the Defense Program"
- 10:30-11:00 P.M. "Listen America!" NBC-Red
- 11:15-11:30 P.M. "The Story Behind the Headlines" NBC-Red

Saturdays

- 12:00-12:15 P.M. "Consumer Time" NBC-Red
- 6:45-7:00 P.M. "New World News" NBC-Blue
- 7:00-7:30 P.M. "Defense for America" NBC-Red
- 7:00-7:30 P.M. "People's Platform" CBS
- 7:45-8:00 P.M. H. V. Kaltenborn NBC-Red

Radio Notes

"Freedom's People," a radio program dramatizing the achievements of the American Negro, may be heard Sundays over the Red network of the National Broadcasting Company.

Radio these days is much occupied with defense. The current schedule of the National Broadcasting Company calls for over 100 defense broadcasts a month, including 14 scheduled sustaining broadcasts and two commercially sponsored programs, devoted entirely to

defense. The army, navy, marines, and the treasury, justice, and agriculture departments are cooperating in the broadcasts.

"A reprint of four articles from *The News Letter* of 1940-41 is titled *Aids to Democracy: Radio, Movies, and Press*. Of interest will be the list of "Free and Inexpensive Materials" included. The price is 25 cents. Send orders to Publications Office, Ohio State University" (*The News Letter*, October, 1941).

Motion Picture Notes

"A 64-page pamphlet, *Making School Movies*, by William G. Hart and Ray Wenger, is now available from the Publications Office, The Ohio State University, Columbus, at 50 cents" (*The News Letter*, October, 1941).

If you rent films you should send in your orders well in advance in order to insure delivery of the films on the dates which fit into your teaching schedule. A number of guides have been issued for this purpose. To help the teacher in his selection of films the outstanding source lists are given below:

Cooke, D. E., and Rahbeck-Smith, E. C. *Educational Film Catalog*. New York: H. W. Wilson. \$4.00 for two years. The most complete catalog on non-theatrical films. Each film is listed according to the Dewey decimal system. Brief annotations, obtained from cooperating educators, are given, as is all pertinent information concerning size, type, and distributors. Annual compilation and quarterly supplements.

DeVry Corporation, *Free Films for Schools, Clubs, CCC Camps, and Other Non-Theatrical Users*. Chicago: Herman A. DeVry, Inc. 25 cents. An alphabetical list of over 1400 free films. Number of reels, width, type, and distributor listed opposite title of each film. No annotation.

Educational Screen. *1000 and One, The Blue Book of Non-Theatrical Films*. Chicago: Educational Screen. 75 cents. The most complete annual list of non-theatrical films from all sources. Classifies the films under 155 subject groups. Annotations—very brief, but include number of reels, size, type, and whether free or rental.

Hartley, W. H. *Selected Films for American History and Problems*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University. \$2.25. Part I gives directions for obtaining, evaluating, and utilizing educational films. Part II comprises a fully annotated catalog for illustrating various aspects of American civilization.

Heimers, Lili. *Visual and Teaching Aids on Latin America, Spain, and Spain in the United States*. Upper Montclair: New Jersey State Teachers College. 50 cents. An excellent list of materials on a lively topic. Simply lists firms which supply films. Does not tell what films are available. *Visual Aids*

for the Teaching of Problems of Democracy. From the above source. 50 cents.

United States Office of Education. *Directory of U.S. Government Films*. Washington: Office of Education. Free. Complete listing of government films distributed through the various offices of the United States Government. (Out of print at present.)

Victor Animatograph Corporation. *Directory of 16-mm. Film Sources*. Davenport, Iowa: Victor Animatograph Corp. 50 cents. Gives names and addresses of sources to which inquiries or orders should be sent. Briefly describes nature of films available and provision for their distribution.

West, Seymour. *Visual Aids for Pupil Adventure in the Realm of Geography*. Upper Montclair: New Jersey State Teachers College. 50 cents. Aids to topics in geography.

Guides to the discussion of current theatrical films of note may be obtained from Educational and Recreational Guides, Inc., Room 1418, 1501 Broadway, New York City. These guides are issued monthly and are 25 cents a copy, \$2.00 a year. Club subscriptions, 10 or more, 65 cents a semester each.

The National Film Board of Canada in the United States is now offering a completely new range of documentaries, and also a number of kodachrome two-reelers in 16-mm., which are available on special terms. Schools interested in booking Canadian films should write Wesley Greene, 59 East Van Buren St., Chicago.

The 1942 catalog of the College Film Center, 59 East Van Buren St., Chicago, is now available; it contains a large section on films for the social studies.

If you are interested in producing school movies let us recommend that you obtain Eleanor D. Child and Hardy R. Finch's *Producing School Movies*. Chicago: The National Council of Teachers of English, 211 68th St., 1941. \$1.50.

Classroom Film Review

Title: *Our Constitutional Government*

Length and type: 2 reels, 16-mm., sound.

Distributor: Bell and Howell Company, 1801-1815 Larchmont Ave., Chicago; 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York City; 716 N. La Brea Ave., Hollywood.

Rental: \$4 per day.

A review of how governments arose, with specific reference to the United States. The opening scene is laid in a high school social studies class in which students are discussing the meaning of the pledge to the flag. As the teacher comments, scenes showing early forms

of government such as primitive, patriarchal, and Indian are shown. Again we return to the classroom and this time the teacher is explaining a chart on family organization and institutions which serve the family. The class and teacher then discuss the science of government, comparing the taxpayer with stockholders in private corporations. A series of stills then follows showing milestones on the road toward constitutional government. These include scenes of the signing of the Magna Carta, Marco Polo, the Renaissance, Gutenberg, the fall of Constantinople, the discovery of America, Magellan, the defeat of the Spanish Armada, the founding of Jamestown, the landing of the Pilgrims, and the English Bill of Rights. Then Patrick Henry is shown fighting for principles which are now taken for granted. As a transition between scenes the film returns to the classroom and the teacher talks about general principles. Then, again, we are shown historic scenes: the committee which drew up the Declaration of Independence, the document of the Articles of Confederation, and James Madison speaking about the philosophy of the Constitution. Finally the film ends on the note of the service of government today and we see brief news of the filing of birth certificates, food inspection, inspection of homes and buildings, the preservation of law and order, the laying out of streets and highways, schools, and the granting of licenses and burial permits.

Fair material on the Constitution. Good as introduction or review material for civics classes. This film contains a great deal of still material which hardly belongs in a motion picture. It is crowded with a great number of picture ideas any one of which might be the subject of a whole film. In spots the historic dramatizations are good, but they tend to get lost among the great mass of material.

Recent 16-mm. Releases

Dierks Lumber and Coal Company, Kansas City, Mo.

Over Pine Mountain Trails, 3 reels, sound, color, free. Story of the development of lumbering in the Ozarks.

Smith Brothers Manufacturing Co., Carthage, Mo.

Big Smith, 3 reels, sound, free. Manufacture of work garments.

Pictorial Films, Inc., 1270 Sixth Ave., New York.

Battle of London, 2 reels, sound, rental \$3.00. Story of an air raid on London.

United States Travel Bureau, 45 Broadway, New York.

In All the World, 9 reels, sound, color, free. Tour through Glacier National Park.

Motion Picture Extension Service, U. S. Department of Agriculture, Washington.

Bip Goes to Town, 1 reel, sound, free. A farm boy visits an electrified farm.

Farmers and Defense, 2 reels, sound, free. Place of agriculture in national defense.

Power and the Land, 4 reels, sound, free. Comforts brought to the farm by the Rural Electrification Administration.

Erpi Classroom Films, Inc., 35-11 Thirty-fifth Avenue, Long Island City, New York.

Note: The following sound films are each one reel in length. They sell for \$50 per reel, less 10 per cent educational discount. They are rented by many film libraries; consult the one nearest you for rates: *Westward Movement*; *Flatboat Pioneers*; *Pioneers of the Plains*; *Old New Orleans*; *Growth of Cities*; *People of Alaska*; *Eskimo Children*; *Communication*; *City's Health*.

Walter O. Gutlohn, Inc., 35 W. 45th St., New York.

Note: The following sound films are 1/2 reel each in length (showing time 5 minutes), rental \$1.00 each: *America's Factory Front*, *America's New Nobility*, *Battle of the Atlantic*, *Battle of the Mediterranean*, *Brother Rat*, *Bundles for Britain*, *Gung Ho*, *Hitler's Secret Weapon*, *Master of Timing*, *Mightier Than Words*, *Night Hawks*, *Our Empire in the Air*, *Prophet Without Honor*, *Sea Power vs. Air Power*, *Swastika Over South America*, *That Tattered Lackey*, *The Punctured Yellow Peril*, *The Secret of Blitz*, *The Sluggers*.

U. S. Bureau of Mines, 4800 Forbes St., Pittsburgh, Pa.

Lead Mining in Southeast Missouri. 1 reel, sound, free. Title explains contents.

Lead Milling, Smelting, and Refining. 1 reel, sound, free.

Free Industrial Slides

The Victor Animatograph Corporation, Davenport, Iowa, has prepared and now offers free of all rental charges 16 slide-lecture sets. These sets average about 50 slides. All slides are supplied in the standard size $3\frac{1}{2} \times 4$ inches, which fit all standard makes of projectors. Among the sets available are: "The Evolution of the Wind Mill in America," "The Story of Wood," "History of the Telephone," "A Modern Ocean Steamship," "From Iron Mine to Sheet Metal." To cover postage, insurance, and mailing charges, 35 cents in stamps or coin must accompany each order.

Maps

A new series of illustrated American history maps has been announced by Weber Costello Co., Chicago Heights, Illinois. The maps, the work of Professor Rolla M. Tryon of the University of Chicago, are notable for pictorial presentation of historical events, places, persons, and trends. There are nine maps in the series, each $34\frac{1}{8} \times 48$ inches, with a scale of 65 miles to the inch. The maps with their pictures are printed in unusually vivid and brilliant, yet harmonious, colors. The maps included in the series are "Routes of Certain Travelers, Traders, Discoverers and Explorers, 1270 to 1700 A.D.," "Present Continental United States, Except Alaska as it appeared in 1759," "Present Continental United States, Except Alaska, As It Appeared in 1829," "Present Continental United States, Except Alaska, As It Appeared in 1861," "Present Continental United States, Except Alaska, as It Appeared in 1893," "Continental United States, Except Alaska, As It Appears Today," "United States and Its Outlying Territories and Possessions." A complete map manual, written by Dr. Tryon, accompanies each map set. The set of nine maps costs from \$41 to \$63 depending upon the mounting selected. Single maps may be obtained for from \$3.75 to \$8.

Recordings

The "Cavalcade of America" recordings are now being distributed by the Recordings Division, American Council on Education, Room 819 Time and Life Building, New York.

Twelve new recordings have recently been added to this series, making a total of twenty-four "Cavalcade" recordings now available for classroom use. The price depends upon the size you require. For ordinary phonographs playing at a speed of 78 revolutions per minute, twelve-inch records are available at \$4.50 per program. Those who have playback machines may obtain 16-inch records playing at $33\frac{1}{3}$ revolutions per minute for \$3.50 per program. The programs now available are as follows: "Tisquantum" (Indian life in the Colonial period), "Benedict Arnold," "Thomas Paine," "Valley Forge," "Dr. Franklin Goes to Court," "The Constitution of the United States," "The Undefended Border" (Canada and the United States), "Young Andy Jackson," "Sam Houston," "Francis Scott Key," "Abraham Lincoln," "Nancy Hanks," "John Brown," "Robert E. Lee," "Jane Addams of Hull House," "Roger Williams," "As a Man Thinketh," "John Fitch," "The Mystery of the Spotted Death," "Red Death" (pellagra), "Oliver Wendell Holmes, Poet," and "Walt Whitman."

Slide Films

The Information Division of the United States Housing Authority, Washington, has prepared an exceptional slide film entitled "Yes, We *Can* Have Housing," which presents the nation's housing problem, the USHA public-housing program, and suggestions to local groups regarding how to work effectively for better housing in their own communities. This film consists of 80 striking single-frame pictures printed on regular 35-mm. film which may be projected on any regular slide-film projector. A complete set of speech notes accompanies the slide film and provides complete and interesting information on each picture. Copies of "Yes We *Can* Have Housing" may be obtained from Photo Lab, Inc., 3825 Georgia Avenue, N.W., Washington, D.C. The price is 75 cents. It is worth many times that sum.

Write directly to the Information Division, United States Housing Authority, Washington, for a seven-page statement entitled "How to Make Your Own Illustrated Lecture on Housing." This mimeographed leaflet tells how to combine parts of the USHA film with local pictures and local data.

"Conquest of the Colorado," a standard-size film strip with lecture, may be purchased for 50 cents from the Bureau of Reclamation, Washington. Fifty-one pictures show the Colorado River and the building of Boulder, Parker, and Imperial Dams, and of the All-American Canal. Checks or money orders should be made payable to the Bureau of Reclamation.

Pictures

Informative Classroom Picture Publishers, 48 N. Division Ave., Grand Rapids, Michigan, has recently published a series of picture biographies of great Americans. Brought together in one unit entitled "Americans All," this series of twenty-four black-and-white drawings depicts outstanding events in the lives of Franklin, Washington, Boone, Jefferson, Audubon, Horace Mann, Longfellow, Lincoln, Clara Barton, Stephen Foster, Louisa May Alcott, Samuel Clemens, William Cody, Bell, Edison, Burbank, Walter Reed, Theodore Roosevelt, Jane Addams, Walter Damrosch, Knute Rockne, and others. A page of text accompanies each picture. The series sells for \$2.80.

Informative Classroom Picture Publishers, mentioned above, also have printed an illustrated copy of "The Bill of Rights" in poster size. It sells for 50 cents.

The Berrien Book Bindery, Berrien Springs, Michigan, has a plan for breaking down your old copies of the *National Geographic* and binding them according to topics organized under the Dewey decimal system. A budget

plan has been worked out whereby twenty years of the *National Geographic* may be bound at 8 cents per article. For further information write to the company.

Helpful Articles

Gray, H. A. "Evaluation and Use of Sound Films," *Elementary School Journal*, XLII:97-104, October, 1941. An experiment with a group of practicing teachers to determine their reactions to a typical sound teaching film.

Marden, Luis, "Panama, Bridge of the World," *National Geographic*, LXXX:591-630, November, 1941. As usual the *Geographic* contains a number of fine pictures for teaching. The color, and black-and-white pictures on Panama are especially good.

Palmer, Harris C., "A Filmstrip for School-Community Relations," *Educational Screen*, XX:329, October, 1941. Selling the school to the public through the use of a school-made film-strip.

Vayette, Kenneth E., "A Study of Children's Responses to Geography Pictures," *Journal of Geography*, XL:262-273, October, 1941. The writer tested children's concepts gained after studying a series of pictures appearing in geography texts and concluded that pictures must be taught and studied, not just observed; that pictures which show typical geographical features rather than unusual phenomena should be used; and that many times more than one picture is required to explain a single idea.

Williams, Don G., "Visual Aids Club," *Clearing House*, XVI:77-79, October, 1941. How the Great Falls, Montana, High School, uses a corps of students to operate projectors, inspect film, and make repairs, thereby relieving the classroom teacher of these tasks, and at the same time giving students responsibility.

Readers are invited to send items of interest for this department to Dr. Hartley at the editorial office, 204 Fayerweather Hall, Columbia University, New York.

Book Reviews

Washington and the Revolution: A Reappraisal. By Bernhard Knollenberg. New York: Macmillan, 1940. Pp. xvi, 269. \$3.00.

Horatio Gates: Defender of American Liberties. By Samuel White Patterson. New York: Columbia Univ. Press, 1941. Pp. xiv, 466. \$4.25.

These two books should be read together, as they deal with a common theme and both writers have used largely the same material.

"Washington and the Revolution" is not a suitable title for the first book. It is not a reappraisal of Washington; it might be designated as a reappraisal of Gates, Conway, and Congress. Primarily it is a destructive criticism of the published works of biographers of Washington and earlier historians in their handling of certain incidents that are certainly capable of more than one interpretation. There are fifteen chapters in the body of the book and fifteen chapters in the Appendix, each of which parallels the corresponding chapter in the main text.

Each chapter of the main body of the book has at its heading a quotation from some historian or biographer, or both, to which the author of this volume takes exception. The chapter is then, with one exception, devoted to a specific dissection of the errors in the quoted statement. Of the fifteen chapters, seven deal primarily with Gates, three are devoted to Conway, three to Congress, one to Fort Washington, and one to Washington.

The authors that are most frequently castigated are Worthington C. Ford, John C. Fitzpatrick, James Truslow Adams, Louis M. Sears, and Rupert Hughes. The latter is described as being "dangerously unreliable" (p. 231). "Historians" in general come in for severe negative criticism, although fifteen contemporary scholars are selected for specific commendation (p. 167).

In the preface the author explains that he has for years been working on a detailed political history of the Revolution and makes many complimentary statements about Washington. This volume is obviously a by-product

of that larger study that is in progress. One gets the impression that the unfortunate title was adopted at the last moment to give the volume a wider selling appeal.

So far as Washington is concerned, the book is almost entirely destructive. Not a single good point in Washington's career or character is pointed out, although several undesirable ones are emphasized. In some cases the author falls into errors of scholarship similar to those of the writers he criticizes; the outstanding instances are his treatment of Washington's attitude toward long enlistment for the army and his attempt to make Washington out as an unfeeling and brutal disciplinarian. At times the author seems to reveal almost a Washington phobia, although he evidently intends to be merely scientific.

The volume is carefully documented and footnoted. Two minor errors were noted. On page 146, footnote 7, George II is referred to as "King" of Hanover. Hanover was not a kingdom at that time. On page 218, footnote 2, there is an obvious misunderstanding of "absence without leave" and "desertion" and "absent" should read "absence."

The second volume, *Horatio Gates*, is worthy of more serious consideration. It is the first full-length biography of Gates that has appeared. In his long and very inclusive bibliography Patterson lists only one sketch of Gates' life and that is in the *Dictionary of American Biography*, written by Randolph G. Adams. Consequently, this book is an event in American historiography.

The volume itself is divided into three main divisions. The first, of two chapters, traces his career in England and the British Army, his long years of service as a British army officer in America, and his final emigration to America, where he settled in Virginia. During this period he had acquired a wide personal acquaintance with leading Americans, especially Washington, with whom he served under Braddock.

Part two traces his military career during the Revolution. One chapter deals with his

service as Adjutant General under Washington during the first year of the war, where he came to know intimately all of the New England leaders. Seven chapters are devoted to his work in the campaigns in northern New York, including the capture of Burgoyne. Three chapters are devoted to the Conway controversy and the attempt to displace Washington as the head of the American army. One chapter details his work as President of the War Board. Another chapter follows him through the Highlands and Rhode Island campaigns. Another describes his disaster in the South, and the concluding chapter traces his final service as Adjutant General and his part in the Newburgh episode.

Part three has two chapters which portray his closing years after 1783 until his death in 1806 at the age of 79.

The important contributions this volume makes to our knowledge of Gates are (1) the very wide personal acquaintances Gates had developed among politically important Americans; (2) his wide personal correspondence; (3) the events of 1777-1778, including the surrender of Burgoyne and the Conway episode; (4) his loyalty to and friendship with Washington; and (5) the wide esteem in which he was held in his later years.

There are wide discrepancies in the conclusions of Patterson and Knollenberg on vital points. Knollenberg states that Gates was appointed to succeed Schuyler as a result of congressional intrigue. Patterson makes it amply clear that Gates led that intrigue and justifies him in his ambition. Knollenberg says that the "Conway Cabal was probably a myth" (p. 66), but Patterson develops ample proof of a widespread movement to displace Washington with Gates, shows that Gates was receptive and active in the matter, and that he was one of the few supporters of Conway. Knollenberg suggests that Gates moved to New York because of the continuing unfriendliness of Washington (p. 63). Patterson points out in detail how closely the two men worked together during the critical period, and gives wholly different reasons for the removal to New York. Knollenberg is extremely anti-Washington in tone. Patterson, in spite of his love for his hero, Gates, shows very little anti-Washington sentiment and in the trying episodes strongly supports Washington. Both seek

to show that Gates was far more democratic and more interested in the welfare of the common soldier than was Washington, but the evidence in both cases is extremely flimsy and based upon the same or similar episodes. Both condemn Washington for being specific in his military instructions to Gates—a most curious conclusion. Both reveal most naïve ideas on military matters.

Patterson's otherwise excellent work is marred by an attempt to write a biography in popular style. The account is heavily padded with romanticizing as to what Gates may have thought on certain occasions, his unrecorded oaths, the expressions of his face, and what he probably ate at various meals—items on which he has no evidence whatever. He also habitually has his characters "gallop." They never ride. Gates doing a "five hundred mile gallop" is grotesque. He is permitted to "trot" from his home in Virginia to New York, when seeking a second bride. The gratuitous slur on the morals of the women of Canada, New York, and Philadelphia (pp. 140, 237) is wholly out of place. The style is heavy, frequently lacking in clarity and coherence, and entirely too many of the citations to sources are incomplete. Sharpsburg (p. 358) is misspelled, and the population of Philadelphia in 1760 was not 12,000 (p. 19).

In spite of these faults this biography of Horatio Gates will long remain the standard authority in its field. *Washington and the Revolution* is likely to be referred to as an unfortunate example of special pleading under the form of scientific scholarship.

O. M. DICKERSON

Colorado State College of Education
Greeley

POLITICAL AND SOCIAL GROWTH OF THE AMERICAN PEOPLE, 1865-1940. By Arthur Meier Schlesinger. 3rd ed. Vol. II. New York: Macmillan, 1941. Pp. xxi, 783. \$3.25.

In line with recent pedagogy, the new edition of this college text takes the end of the Civil War as the most appropriate time to begin the study of recent American history. It thus eliminates five chapters on the period from 1852-65 which had appeared in the second edition; adds three chapters, among its best, on the New Deal through the election of

1940 and a closing one on "Social and Cultural Factors, 1917-1940." In all there are twenty-two chapters, each subdivided into sections.

The dominant theme is the economic revolution and its effect on the United States: on domestic politics (primarily the development of national power), on foreign relations, and on social and cultural developments. As might be expected of a man with Professor Schlesinger's background, it is these last two factors whose treatment is outstanding. In fact, the only sections of the book which seemed to this reviewer to fall below the high standard of excellence set by the rest were those dealing with the farm problem. This might have been caused by the author's correct insistence that the city is the dynamic factor in modern industrial society.

The book should adapt itself admirably for teaching purposes. The only questionable device is the citation of direct quotations without any indication of the source; even this practice eliminates the multiplication of footnotes. Especially noteworthy is the organization—never once is the reader left in doubt as to just where he is going. The combined chronological-topical treatment, with the period of time depending upon the subject under discussion, lends itself splendidly to an intelligible account. The style, marked by felicitous phraseology, is interesting, and students will also like the impression of progress which the book imparts.

One purpose of the author was the revision of some judgments. Among the more interesting of these are the treatment of the Fourteenth Amendment and the Supreme Court, and the action of the Germans at Manila in 1898. In other respects, too, the revision greatly improved the volume. To the topical and partly annotated bibliographies—brought up to date—at the ends of chapters has been added a composite list of the books cited. Fifty illustrations, including cartoons following some of the chapters, are a new feature and help bring home historical lessons. There are nineteen maps, much improved even when they concern the same material, plus eleven tables and charts. The whole format is more attractive than that of the 1933 edition. The index is helpfully complete.

For the secondary school teacher, probably

the most valuable features will be the extensive bibliographies and the illustrative material, including such items as a map of the United States according to population, a table of America's war effort, and a chart on the reorganization of governmental agencies. Its value for reference reading is diminished by the exclusion of concentrated masses of specific information. As a lucid and well-proportioned discussion of major developments in recent American history, this book should rank high among texts for college survey courses.

ROBERT B. HOLTMAN

Western Washington College of Education
Bellingham

AMERICAN POLITICAL AND SOCIAL HISTORY. By Harold Underwood Faulkner. 2nd ed. New York: Crofts, 1941. Pp. xxv, 804. \$3.75.

All historians are agreed upon at least one thing: history is complex. Historical scholarship which may clarify a hitherto obscure event seldom if ever aids the textbook writer in simplifying the account of it—and almost never leads him to justify its omission. Moreover the advance of learning in fields related to history does not permit the historian to shift his burden elsewhere, for his particular function is to bring all relative knowledge to bear upon the explanation of human events. Thus, each year the task of the textbook writer becomes harder.

Since any text in American history must therefore be the result of a rigorously selective process, it would be fatuous for a reviewer to match his judgment against that of an author regarding the treatment of arbitrarily chosen episodes. The reviewer may express his opinions on general aspects of a book. Does it in the main reflect acquaintance with the best materials available today? Does it follow contemporary trends of organization? Does it have some particular distinction which marks it off from other so-called standard texts?

The answers to the first two of these questions, as they apply to Professor Faulkner's book, would certainly be in the affirmative. It is quite obvious that he is acquainted with the principle monographic literature of his subject, and while a reader may differ with him regarding his selection of data or his actual

or implied interpretation, there is no special pleading or noticeable bias in his presentation. He follows modern trends in giving relatively more attention to the twentieth century than to the colonial era, in using both topical and chronological divisions, and he makes some progress toward the placing of social and economic history where it belongs, namely with political history.

The third question is more difficult to answer, but some facts can be stated. Professor Faulkner's book is distinguished for its clarity of style, and for the inclusion of materials not found in other texts. It has personality. It contains also a few well-selected illustrations, useful maps, and an excellent bibliography of 47 pages.

This second edition differs from the earlier work mainly in the addition of an extra chapter and in a revision of the materials since 1920. Although intended primarily for college students it can be recommended to teachers as one of the best single-volume texts in American history.

RUHL J. BARTLETT

Tufts College

MAN, THE NATURE TAMER: FROM CAVE MAN TO AMERICAN CITIZEN. By Richard H. Nida and Fay Adams. New York: Holt, 1941. Pp. iii, 423. \$1.64.

"*Man, the Nature Tamer* is an integration of history, geography, science, invention and civics. It attempts . . . to bring to the pupil a story of the race's experience in its natural setting and human completeness, and in its relation to many fields of knowledge. The story begins with the foundations of civilization and finds its climax in the life of modern America" (p. iii).

The authors, Richard H. Nida of the Manual Arts High School of Los Angeles and Fay Adams of the School of Education of the University of Southern California, make use of the unit plan throughout the textbook. The units tell the stories of prehistoric man, human foods, clothing, building, metals, fire and fuels, power, transportation, communication, and the machine age. A brief preview introduces each unit. Motivation is provided at the beginning of the unit by an incident in modern

life, usually within the experience of the child. The incident arouses the curiosity of the child, and causes him to delve into history, science, geography, and civics for an explanation. Instead of going to several textbooks and to several different teachers for his explanation, the child needs go only to *Man, the Nature Tamer*, taught by one teacher, and thus find the explanation.

The book, applicable as a textbook for seventh or eighth grades, contains many excellent cartoons, photographs, maps, and other visual aids. Many of the hard words are explained and the pronunciations are given. From time to time questions intersperse the reading material and may be used as the basis for further exploration or discussion. "Exploring ideas," at the end of each topic, furnish supervised study or home-lesson material. However, these ideas are generally vague, without any recommendations to reference material, and often are above the capacity of the average pupil; e.g., "find some new way of using corn or corn meal" (p. 36). There is also a scarcity of political and physical maps in the book, especially considering the fact that place and physical geography are emphasized by the authors. While the vocabulary is extremely simple in some parts of the book, it is too difficult in other parts.

The book is interesting in its attempt to integrate the social studies with science for junior high school classes, in the motivation provided, and in the excellent illustrations.

THEODORE LIBBER

McKinley High School
Washington, D. C.

THE MAKING OF A DEMOCRACY. By Gertrude Hartman. New York: John Day, 1941. Pp. 302. \$1.96.

In 200 of its 276 pages, *The Making of a Democracy* describes the unrelenting struggle of our ancestors for freedom; and, although there are occasional lapses into abstract vocabulary and broad generalizations, it is an interesting, lively, and understandable story. Students will long remember the vivid narrative treatment of such significant episodes as the march of the peasants on London, the beginnings of representative government in Eng-

land, the struggles between King and Parliament, Bacon's Rebellion, and the Boston Tea Party. Apt quotations from original sources make both the matter considered, and the people involved, alive and real.

All in all here is an excellent example of how a history of the bitter battle for human liberty may be utilized to develop an understanding and appreciation of present free institutions. Commissions and teacher committees engaged in studying the problem of teaching democracy will find this part of the book a valuable aid.

Not so much can be said for the section on "Democracy and Dictatorship." First, in comparing democracy and dictatorship, the author appears too judicial and impartial. True, she does place herself on the side of democracy by implication, but in most instances she fails to make her position definite and unmistakably clear for young readers. Here is a striking example. "Democracy believes that the intelligence of the people can be trusted to decide upon what is good for them. Dictators decide what the people may or may not do" (p. 237). Nowhere is an adequate answer given to the important question: Which of these two is the better method and why? In their literature, must young democrats be compelled to draw inferences, while young totalitarians are given positive answers?

Again, for immature minds, the story of the rise of the dictators may well leave an impression opposite from that which the author intended. For instance, she says, ". . . a new form of government arose in several countries. Suffering people were willing to surrender their freedom in exchange for strong leadership which would give them security. If people can find no way to earn a living, if they see no better prospect for the future, if freedom means only freedom to starve, it loses its value and people are quite ready to give it up for a government which promises them security and restores their hope in the future" (p. 224). Does freedom, at any time, mean "only freedom to starve?" Or even if it does should one not be as ready to starve now for freedom as our forefathers were to be shot for it? And where in all history have distressed people found permanent happiness and security in return for surrendering their liberty.

In Russia? In Germany? In Italy? These concepts, vital to an understanding faith in the efficacy of democracy and needed as a protection from those who would destroy it, are nowhere emphasized.

Again, in discussing post-war Germany, the author declares, "The new government [the democratic government, that is] was cumbersome and ineffective and seemed unable to cope with the great problems of the country. . . . Most of them [the German people] thought that after a trial of several years democracy had done little to make conditions better and they had lost faith in it" (pp. 230 f). To emphasize failure and lost faith when telling of democracy, and to emphasize power and hope when speaking of dictatorship, is for young minds, to say the least, questionable.

GLENN W. MOON

Stamford High School
Stamford, Connecticut

HISTORY OF LATIN AMERICA. By Hutton Webster and Roland Dennis Hussey. Rev. ed. Boston: Health, 1941. Pp. x, 326. \$1.64.

While freely exposing the shortcomings of Spanish and Portuguese colonization, Webster and Hussey enable the reader to evaluate that colonization in terms of its setting and times. The chapters on achievement of independence and subsequent political development are quite compendious in nature, but the authors manage to give an impression of relationships and of the sweep of events. In these chapters, too, terminology will be a problem for amateur and youthful readers. The accounts of the births of the republics make it quite evident that the struggles between and among Creoles and Iberians made revolution and government little intimate affairs beyond the ken of the Indian, Negro, and mestizo masses. While the homely nature of the long Latin-American succession of dictators is meticulously pointed out, perhaps too sharp distinction is made between good and bad dictators.

Largely confined to the recent and contemporary scene, treatment of economic and social conditions is commendably broad in this outline history but not commensurately deep. The reader sees something of the breaking up of peonage and of the greater political

stability and democracy brought by growth of middle-class groups.

A lengthy chapter, perhaps the best in the book, is devoted to the international relations of the Latin Americas. The relations of the United States with its southern neighbors are dealt with very objectively, neither whitewashing the larger nation nor unduly reviling it. Among the Americas, a disturbing note is that "as some of them became stronger and somewhat industrialized, their foreign policies showed the same quarrels over trade and tariffs, and the same struggle for leadership, that had earlier appeared between the powers of Europe and the United States" (p. 300). There is a well-balanced summary of the origin and expansion of the Monroe Doctrine, coupled with the story of the Anglo-American contest for hegemony in the Americas south. One even gets a glimpse of a hemispheric balance-of-power struggle. In contrast, one glows a little over the account of the long-accepted custom of arbitrating many conflicts as well as over the more than hundred-year-old concept of Pan-Americanism.

Done in textbook style, *History of Latin America* has study helps for each chapter, their best feature being the stress on vocabulary. Maps are good and sufficiently plentiful. Illustrations are fair, though there are none in color. Bibliographical notes are gathered at the conclusion of the narrative. Of the eleven chapters, five are concerned with political organization and activities from colonial times to the present. Two others have as their themes geographic environment and native peoples, and European background.

Originally the work of Hutton Webster, now retired, the first edition of this text appeared in 1924. Subsequent and present editions have revisions and additions made by Dr. Hussey to carry the narrative up to date and to incorporate the results of more recent research. The scholarship of both men is unimpeachable. However, especially in the less-revised portions, the style and general nature of the content are rather dated and do not measure up to the current standards of vitality and functionalism in textbook writing. The encyclopedic nature of the text will tend to repel many youthful readers.

Community High School
Pekin, Illinois

WAYNE ALVORD

CONSERVATION OF THE NATION'S RESOURCES. By Harry E. Flynn and Floyd E. Perkins. New York: Macmillan, 1941. Pp. x, 385. \$1.60.

Teachers of the social studies will find this book useful either as a basic text for a comprehensive conservation unit or as a handy reference for topical readings in connection with related units.

The authors are wise in including materials on both natural and human resources, for, as they maintain in the Preface, "the primary purpose of conserving the natural resources of a country is to have them available for use so that people may live richer, happier, and more wholesome lives" (p. v). This dual emphasis broadens the scope of the treatment and tends to infuse more opportunities for consideration of the social implications of this problem. Opening with a general survey of America's wealth, the book then treats topically the natural resources in water, natural vegetation, land, wildlife, and minerals; human resources are considered in specific relations to the problems of health and safety and in general relation to the structure of society and the idea of "total conservation." It is only fair to point out, in line with the authors' frank admission, that the development of such problems of human conservation as health and safety lacks detail, even to the point of inadequacy; nevertheless, the brief discussion allows at least a suggestion of a wider conception of conservation and the delineation of a few relations to the total theme.

The book should be well suited to the reading tastes of many junior and senior high school students. Subject matter is approached skilfully by means of motivational devices that include parables (e.g., pp. 3-9), pertinent source quotations, historical sketches, and thought-provoking questions. The charts, graphs, and diagrams are adequate, while the pictures selected for use are of noteworthy interest and highly appropriate to the content. These helps, together with a rather happy choice of interesting factual details and the utilization of an extremely simple organization should make this very much a student's book. It is possible, however, that the significant generalizations might have been indicated more clearly, even though the occasional summaries are helpful in this regard.

Teachers will appreciate the "questions for

discussion" and the "suggestions for independent work." Of particular utility should be the film list and index at the conclusion of the text, a feature that will serve well in the selection of visual aids on conservation and related units. The reading list of additional books is brief but conveniently arranged and generally well selected.

Although this reviewer would have liked to have the TVA and Grand Coulee projects drawn on more freely for illustrations and cases in point, the content is highly informative and graphically presented.

RYLAND W. CRARY

University High School
Iowa City, Iowa

JAPAN SINCE 1931, ITS POLITICAL AND SOCIAL DEVELOPMENTS. By Hugh Borton. New York: Institute of Pacific Relations. 1940. Pp. xii, 149. \$1.25.

On September 18, 1931, the Japanese army moved into Manchuria. This momentous event brought to an end the former friendly attitude of Foreign Minister Baron Shidehara toward China and began a new era of Japanese expansion on continental Asia. Furthermore, it inaugurated a new period in the history of the Far East and brought far-reaching repercussions in Japanese relations with the Western World. In this very illuminating study, Professor Borton analyzes the more significant changes in the economic, political, and social structure of Japanese society during the past decade.

For background the author gives a brief sketch of the executive, legislative, and judicial branches of the government, together with their present status and functions. These include the Emperor, the Cabinet, the Privy Council, the Genro, the Supreme Command, the Diet, and the courts.

One of the most informative chapters in this book deals with the potent and well-organized "pressure" groups in Japanese society which are clearly depicted in the following categories: "the financiers and industrialists; the politicians and political parties; the rural and labor groups; and finally the militarists and the patriotic societies." Almost everyone in Japan is an active member of some one or more of these organizations.

While numerous patriotic organizations existed before 1931, their increase in number has always coincided with times of national crisis like the present. Today there are upwards of 235 such societies. Their main purpose is to exalt the Imperial House, to foster militarism, and to train Japanese youth in patriotism. All are united in a common willingness to support any regime or leader that favors expansion. Members of these organizations have often been ruthless in the intimidation and even the assassination of high government officials, always in the name of patriotism. Thus it has been extremely hazardous for anyone to criticize the government and in recent years liberal statesmen generally have been silenced.

In the struggle for power among the leading groups, that of the military, especially the Imperial Army, has been greatly enhanced since the Manchurian venture. This is in line with Japanese tradition.

In June, 1937, the Konoye Government was formed, and in July hostilities were renewed against China following the "incident" at Lukouchiao near Peiping. This situation created another national crisis or emergency and the Konoye Cabinet faced the task of enacting new measures and setting up new bureaucratic controls all aimed at a quick and successful conclusion of the "China incident." This movement toward extreme "unification and centralization" or "national mobilization," and the processes involved, affect all phases of Japanese life and are discussed in some detail.

But there was also a "spiritual mobilization." To assure the proper support and cooperation of all the people, the governing authorities gave much attention to the molding of public opinion through control of the press, radio and education, and the suppression of subversive ideas.

It was largely due to the unrivaled power and influence of the military that these measures were inaugurated, and for lack of an adequate terminology, Professor Borton describes the movement as "the trend toward military fascism" in Japan. The Japanese have formulated a program which not only presupposes victory for her armies in China but which will enable her also "to direct the destiny of the Far East." Thus far, however,

Japan has not been able to exploit the resources of occupied China and her financial and economic difficulties at home have been increasingly burdensome if not dangerous. Nevertheless, her leaders seem determined to "see it through" at any cost.

This book is one of a series recently published by the Institute of Pacific Relations on developments in East Asia during the past ten years. It is well documented, it is objective in treatment, and it makes an excellent contribution to our knowledge of fundamental issues and shifts in Japanese life and statecraft in this time of world revolution.

ALBERT P. LUDWIG

Eastern Washington College of Education
Cheney

THE STRUGGLE FOR NORTH CHINA. By George E. Taylor. New York: Institute of Pacific Relations, 1940. Pp. xiv, 250. \$2.00.

In this interesting and useful volume Professor Taylor presents a comprehensive analysis of Japanese moves into the northern provinces of China beginning in July, 1937, followed by rapid expansion to central and later to southern China. The Japanese armies found no insurmountable obstacles in the way of military occupation of the strategical areas and bases of the northern provinces. Their chief difficulties arose in the multiple problems of political control over the people of North China, particularly the so-called "economically and politically unconscious peasantry" of the vast agrarian hinterlands. Here, strangely enough, the awakened peasants not only evolved a staunch and determined leadership, but they were able also to create the centers and the weapons for political and military resistance to the enemy invaders from Nippon, much to the latter's discomfort.

In December, 1937, the Japanese established the Provisional Government of China at Peking. Next they were ready to extend the political and economic controls of this "puppet regime" to the villages of the agrarian hinterlands for purposes of trade and administration, including the purchase of raw materials, the sale of Japanese goods, the collection of revenues, and the appointment of new and subservient local officials.

In theory, of course, the Provisional Govern-

ment of Peking was created by the people of North China with the assistance of the "friendly armies" of Japan. The personnel of government on the surface is predominantly Chinese. Those who hold the key positions, however, are almost without exception older men, averaging about 60 years. They belong to the old classical school of Chinese education, traditional to the empire. Not one of these "puppet" officials is Western-trained, the Japanese have seen to that. They received their early education in China and then went to Japan to study political science and law.

All of them consistently opposed the Kuomintang and the National Government established in 1928. Under Japanese protection and control they serve as paid bureaucrats, and to every ministry and bureau, Japanese advisers are attached. But in order to bring about the desired shifts in economy, a certain amount of industrialization and an efficient administration, the Japanese were forced to rely more and more upon their own bureaucrats brought from Japan.

Moreover, in March, 1940, the Provisional Government at Peking was transformed into the North China Political Council, and as such it became merely a local organ subordinate to the newly created and Japanese-sponsored Central Government of China at Nanking, with Mr. Wang Ching-wei—the "true successor" of the revolutionist Sun Yat Sen—at the head.

Within the first six months of the war the Chinese peasants of the hinterland had accomplished a remarkable feat. They had succeeded in erecting a new democratic Chinese administration of their own known as the Border Government of Hopei, Shansi, and Chahar. This government was formally established in January, 1938, with headquarters at Fuping, a market town located in the western part of Hopei Province.

Furthermore, the National Chinese Government under Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek not only recognized the Border Government, but also gave it authority over civil and military affairs within its area for the duration of the war. Thus the Provisional Government, set up under Japanese auspices at Peking, unexpectedly found itself challenged from sources hitherto considered passive or insignificant.

The main body of this book deals with the struggle for control in North China between the Provisional Government at Peking and the Border Government at Fuping, from December, 1937, to March, 1940. On the one hand the author traces the successive processes and techniques utilized by the Japanese to gain complete domination over the Chinese population of North China, and on the other, the methods used by the leaders of the Border Government to frustrate Japanese efforts and to defend their fatherland.

One of Professor Taylor's main interests is the manner in which "power is achieved and maintained in the modern world." This is important both in the formulation of policy and in the understanding of present-day events. While this study is primarily concerned with Japanese techniques in progressively setting up "regimes" and controls in conquered lands of Eastern Asia to bring about the "new order" there, certain pertinent comparisons are made with Nazi techniques in Europe. It is pointed out, for example, that techniques of conquest and subsequent controls are closely related to the types of physical and intellectual communications found within the invaded country.

Professor Taylor concludes that "only where these communications are highly advanced and closely integrated with the general economic system can there be rapid conquest and complete political control which admits of no possibility of organized resistance." Right here is where the Japanese made the error of overestimating the true status of the amount of integration on Chinese communications with the general economic system. This may well be one of the chief reasons why the China "incident" has devolved into a stalemate.

Finally, the author analyzes the new birth of political consciousness and opposition of an agrarian China to an industrialized Japan, which is now centered in North China in the struggle between a Japanese sponsored regime and the Border Government, and which continues to thwart Japanese enterprise.

ALBERT P. LUDWIG

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A TEACHING GUIDE FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES.

By The Association of Social Studies Teachers of New York City. New York: College Entrance Book, 1941. Pp. xxiii, 202. \$1.00.

Here is a "must" for social studies teachers and supervisors. Brief, concise, conclusive, yet broad and inclusive, here is a mine of information to guide new teachers, to what the jaded appetites of experienced craftsmen, to aid the overburdened teacher, to provide for supervisors a further insight into the problems of teacher guidance. *A Teaching Guide for the Social Studies* has grown out of the findings of a group of departmental chairmen and teachers in the public high schools of New York City. Their practical experience lies behind the lesson plans set forth in this manual. It is stated in the preface that "... the lesson plans were of uneven merit," and the point is made "... that some teachers would mistakenly regard all of them as models to be imitated. . . . This material loses its value unless the teacher studies it, evaluates it, and in the process, formulates for himself sound principles of lesson planning and teaching." It is hoped that the teachers who use this manual will observe its admitted limitations. "It is impossible for one teacher to use the lesson plans of another."

A summary of the content of this manual should be of interest. The first two chapters are given over to a discussion of lesson planning. Cogent, trenchant comments state the essentials to be kept in mind. Ten types of lessons are summarized. Chapters Three and Four contain pointers of great value to both teachers and supervisors. A few "rules" concerning personal traits and characteristics of teachers will suggest self-criticism. It would be interesting for a teacher to read through "Notes From a Supervisor's Files" after any week of teaching. This reviewer believes such a procedure would improve many a lesson plan made for the week to follow. Chapter Five contains a collection of varied types of lesson plans in civics, economic citizenship, economic geography, European and American history and economics. These plans were selected because of their variety, type, and convenience of form. Some might have been described in greater detail. On the other hand, it may be that the authors purposely omitted details on the ground that such de-

pend for their effectiveness upon teacher personality. One might wish for further examples of the unit plan such as is outlined on pages 133-39 and for fewer of the developmental type. However, the latter will bear close study by those teachers who place too great reliance upon workbooks, projects, unit methods, and the like.

In the appendix are suggested some measures by which pupil attitudes, perceptions, and skills may be checked. While the means outlined are rather subjective they may provide a basis upon which teachers may develop procedures of their own. There follows a list of films and other visual aids; another concerning radio materials; and a third citing sources of pamphlet materials useful in civics, history, economics, and economic geography classes. It is too much to expect in a manual of this scope to ask that a bibliography of some 350 items be annotated, yet small schools might have profited had there been some attempt to indicate comparative merit of the citations. The list outlining field trips in and about New York City will be helpful to local and nearby schools. Moreover, if schools in other areas lack such a list, here is a worth while project for teachers to undertake.

HALL BARTLETT

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FUNDAMENTALS OF SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHING: WITH EMPHASIS ON THE UNIT METHOD.
By Roy O. Billett. Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1940. Pp. xvi, 671. \$2.90.

"Pretty big" is likely to be your first reaction. It is. There are nearly 700 pages, each taller, wider, and more fully packed. *Fundamentals of Secondary School Teaching* does not have the flashy, interesting style that would keep you from getting your normal amount of sleep—but neither do other textbooks in education. Textbooks which teachers and teachers-to-be are expected to read and study do not show too much recognition of the fact that getting the other fellow's ideas through the printed page is a difficult job for most people—even for teachers and college students.

The National Survey of Secondary Education included a comprehensive study of provi-

sions made in the secondary schools to meet individual interests and abilities. Dr. Billett (School of Education, Boston University) directed the study. He found that the schools which admitted using some distinctive plan for individualizing instruction were all doing essentially the same thing. They all emphasized unit assignments. With that background, *Fundamentals of Secondary School Teaching* emphasizes the unit method. It goes beyond mere description. It builds up the biological and psychological bases of effective teaching. It studies the implications of democracy for the secondary school. It analyzes various proposals for the improvement of teaching. Part II is given to current thought and practice in the fields generally included in the secondary school program. There are seventy-five pages of specimen units and unit assignments, ranging from agriculture to shorthand, illustrating unit organization, the evolution and basic principles of which are elaborated.

Fundamentals of Secondary School Teaching is based upon three theses. (1) There are certain fundamentals which are basic to all good teaching; (2) the fundamentals of good teaching are implicit in human nature and the social order, not in subject matter; (3) when teaching is improved, it is improved gradually through the intelligence of individual teachers who are dissatisfied with what they are accomplishing, who know what they want to do, and who do something about it. Each chapter closes with a well-developed list of challenging problems for further thought and study. A well-balanced up-to-date bibliography of (almost exclusively) book references for further reading follows each chapter.

Generally quite direct, clear, and easily understandable, the volume makes some interesting excursions into obscurity. For example, forty-two pages are given to current thought and practice in the foreign languages. The languages taught, enrolment, number of years studied, and so forth, are elaborated, but valid reasons for the teaching and study of the foreign languages in the secondary school are by no means clearly stated. No suggestion is made in the questions for a self-survey (a commendable feature of several chapters) of the local foreign language situation, of the advisability of measuring the extent of reading in the foreign language in the students' after-school

life as a result of foreign language taught for "the progressive development of power to read" the foreign language.

There is evidence of a tendency now and then to play safe, to rely on the reader's own interpretation and application of basic principles. For example, in the discussion of formal discipline an editorial lauding the mind-training values of the study of Greek is quoted to illustrate the exaggerated claims made for that subject. The reader may wonder what are some of the other subjects which base their defense on similar grounds. The question is certainly not answered clearly by the comment, "Greek is by no means the only subject for which such extravagant claims are made."

Fundamentals of Secondary School Teaching will be of real value to teachers-in-service. As a textbook it is better adapted to advanced students. Its apparent love for detail, frequent page-long paragraphs, and mere size are likely to detract from its effectiveness for use by undergraduate students. The thinking is forward-looking. Constant reference to basic educational generalizations makes it particularly valuable in the development of a sound philosophy of secondary education and an understanding of what and how to teach in secondary schools.

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THE NINETEEN FORTY MENTAL MEASUREMENTS YEARBOOK. Edited by Oscar Krisen Buros. Highland Park, N.J., 1941. Pp. xxiii, 674. \$6.00.

For the teacher bewildered by the uninterrupted flow of tests and crosscurrents of conflicting reports, Buros has again performed an invaluable service. The 1940 volume is an improvement over the 1938 volume, just as that one was an improvement over his previous test, reference, and book review compilations. The current volume is improved not only in format, but the whole scope has been broadened. There are more and longer reviews, each with the title of the reviewer. An inspection of these titles reveals that the reviewers were widely selected and represent no one group or school of thought. A significant decision has been made to include reviews of

old as well as of new tests. This is certainly a necessary step if the editor's statement is true that "Despite the fact that tests have been on the market for 5 to 15 years, there exists, for probably 90 per cent of the tests, a dearth of critical information concerning their reliability and validity" (Introduction, p. 11).

In the section devoted to the social studies, twenty-four tests are critically reviewed and an additional seven are listed without review. A careful reading of this section leaves the reader in no doubt that testing in the social studies needs much real improvement. There is a general tendency among the reviewers to question the assumption made for many of these tests that they constitute a measure of "reasoned understanding" and other less informational outcomes of instruction. For example: "... despite the names of the four parts of the test, it is still largely factual ..." (p. 416); "... this test places a premium upon the pupil's recall of a list of standardized facts and equally standardized relationships" (p. 424). The writer's curiosity was aroused to the extent of counting the number of times similar statements appeared. There are 22 such statements, including repetitions, in the less than 24 pages devoted to the social studies. One competent reviewer reports on one test that in spite of this same weakness, it "... is clearly well above the average in this regard" (p. 425). It is thus apparent that there is still plenty of room for instruments which will actually test for more than factual information, whatever their titles may be.

In spite of this disconcerting situation, there is still hopeful progress evident. The more spectacular advances in test techniques have now given way to patient pushing of our knowledge into the unexplored areas little by little. The consolidation of these gains is a

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slow, painful, and undramatic process. Even though some test makers may be overly optimistic in the titles which they give to their tests or to sections of them, their real contributions should not be lost sight of in a quibble over the titles. Wrightstone, for instance, has directed the attention of test users to an area for which tests have been sadly lacking for a long time, that of study skills.

Criticism of Buros' method of compiling reviews based only on examination of the printed tests and their manuals was voiced by reviewers of the 1938 yearbook. This is probably not as vital a weakness as claimed. The reviews are also definitely more than uncritical descriptions of the tests. A very helpful addition to this volume would have been a section analyzing and describing the current trends, with a critical evaluation of new developments in test construction and usage.

HORACE T. MORSE

University of Minnesota

●
EXPLORING YOUR COMMUNITY. By Mary Pieters Keohane and Robert E. Keohane. New York: Harcourt Brace, 1940. Pp. xiv, 529.

KNOW YOUR COMMUNITY. By Bess Goodykoontz. Washington: U. S. Office of Education, 1941. Pp. iii, 35. 10c.

COMMUNITY CONTACTS AND PARTICIPATION OF TEACHERS. By Florence Greenhoe. Washington: American Council on Public Affairs, 1941. Pp. 91. \$2.00 (cloth), \$1.50 (paper).

The emphasis on the resources of the community as materials of instruction is not new, but has had new applications in recent years. Community civics was designed to introduce school students to their own communities through the study of community functions. It has not been too successful. The proposals of the Commission on the Social Studies of the American Historical Association and the studies of cultural sociologists (especially the Lynds) have combined to direct a new approach to community study. There have been a few attempts to write a textbook in community analysis, and Mary and Robert Keohane's *Exploring Your Community* is the best one so far directed to the ninth-grade student.

This text utilizes the rich materials which contributed to *Middletown* and *Middletown*

in Transition, and is organized around the community functions described in the volumes of the Lynds. The six units of the book are: "Getting a Living," "Making a Home," "Using Leisure," "Cooperating for Community Welfare," "Educating the Young," and "Managing Governments." While this gives a new organization of the content, many of the usual topics will be found under these unit titles. Unity is given to the volume by the constant reference to the Middletown data as an example of a community-in-action. Most of the charts and diagrams are based on the same sources, although enough others are given to present a well-balanced picture. The text is well written, and the visual aids add materially to the presentation. The photographic preview of each unit is an interesting departure.

An important feature of the Keohane text is the exploratory activities suggested in each chapter. In the first chapter, general surveys are suggested, and sources of possible information are described. In later chapters, specific studies of community functions and agencies are suggested. With an alert and resourceful teacher and a cooperative community, effective civic education is bound to result from these surveys and studies. While the topics for study are well chosen and specific lines of attack are indicated, it is inevitable that there is too little specific application to any given community. This is not the fault of the authors, who have worked out a program which is probably the best that can be done. It means that effective community study depends upon the competent teacher, and will not result inevitably from the following of this (or any other) text.

Summarizing activities for each unit and good reading lists for each chapter are valuable teaching aids. Suggested readings on vocations dealt with in each unit encourage the teacher and student to use these studies as aids in vocational education and guidance. Specific reading suggestions to assist teachers to make community studies and applications are given in each unit.

Know Your Community, by Bess Goodykoontz, Assistant U. S. Commissioner of Education, is one of a series of study outlines prepared for organizations interested in studying public school systems and their problems. Suggestions for investigation and discussion of such topics as size of the community, location,

history, the people, making a living, community organization and government, community's health, recreation, and cultural opportunities, housing, and welfare services are given in the pamphlet. References for the study of each topic are given, and a good selected bibliography of community survey materials is included.

Dr. Goodykoontz' pamphlet should be used by groups of teachers and as outlines for faculty meetings as well as study groups of lay organizations. If the community has participated in such a study as suggested here, the school will be able to do a more effective piece of work in community study and analysis.

Community Contacts and Participation of Teachers, by Florence Greenhoe, only indirectly touches on the problems mentioned above. This is a sociological study dealing mainly with teacher-community contacts in leisure pursuits. Attention is centered on teacher mobility, teacher reaction to community conduct codes, and teacher participation in organized community life. Replies on over 6,000 questionnaires showed that "teacher migration is best described by the phrase 'limited circulation'." The study of the effect of conduct codes upon teachers offers evidence that "teachers are a restricted and inhibited group." Data on teacher participation in community activities show that "average teachers take part in four activities, but in no activities other than church work and parent teacher efforts do they exercise much local leadership." Material of the study is organized to show the sociology of the teacher as a "stranger." The author suggests that teachers study the results of this research in order that the process of adjustment may be easier, and that school boards study them in order that their actions will be more enlightened. Teachers will find interesting reinforcement of Beale's *Are American Teachers Free?*

JULIAN C. ALDRICH

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THE ADOLESCENT PERSONALITY. The Study of Individual Behavior. By Peter Blos. New York: Appleton Century, 1941. Pp. xiii, 517. \$3.00.

An adolescent youth has three major goals: emancipation from his family, heterosexual

adjustment, and vocational, ideational, and economic self-determination. It is in the attempt to reach these goals that a boy or girl in the adolescent period consciously or unconsciously creates so many confusing and trying problems for himself, his family, and his friends. The youth's experiences in solving his problems shapes his unique personality. Dr. Blos draws this conclusion from an examination of more than six hundred case histories collected by The Study of Adolescents, sponsored by the Commission on Secondary School Curriculum of the Progressive Education Association.

The Adolescent Personality deserves thorough study by guidance workers, by teachers on the secondary school level, and by school administrators and curriculum specialists who desire to understand better the behavior of youth in that phase of life called "adolescence." The importance of the book lies in the fact that it attempts to show *why* adolescents behave as they do. Guidance workers recognize that in many cases the *why* behind behavior

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is far more important than the actual behavior itself. Dr. Blos proves the point that the present behavior, beliefs, and attitudes of an adolescent are not mysterious and incomprehensible if we have a complete picture of the growth and development of the individual in his earlier years. The more complete the picture, the less mysterious the behavior.

In the first section of the book, entitled *Looking at Personality*, the author presents fundamental concepts concerning the nature of personality, its development, and its behavior in a social setting. Defining personality as "an integrated system of the individual's habitual attitudes and behaviour tendencies," the author stresses the fact that one's personality is a product of an array of inner and outer forces, some of which are consciously recognized by an individual, others of which are so subtle that an individual is unaware of their impact or of their importance. One is impressed by the complexity of the forces which operate to create a single personality.

To illustrate his points, Dr. Blos then presents rather complete case histories of two youths attending school, one a girl and the other a boy. This case-history approach to the study of adolescent personality offers opportunity to present the developmental history and status of an individual in a way which impresses upon the mind of the reader the multiplicity of factors which influence and control human behaviour and which create a unique personality pattern.

The third section of the book, presenting the author's *Theory of Adolescent Development*, is a most valuable contribution to an understanding of basic adolescent behavior. Herein are discussed the sources of strain and conflict during adolescence, typical adolescent behavior in response to strain, and the influence of early life experiences upon adolescent development. To illustrate his points, the author refers constantly to the two case histories which have been presented.

Case histories of two out-of-school youths are then presented. In these two cases the personal interview was often used as a technique for gathering information. The value of the interview is stressed, both as to the light it sheds on adolescent behavior and the effect which it may have upon the future behavior of the person interviewed.

The final section of the book discusses "Education and Adolescent Development." Herein the school and the teachers are challenged to learn more about the basic causes underlying the behavior of the individual pupils and to provide suitable school experiences to meet the needs of these adolescent youth. "Education must acknowledge the adolescent as distinct from either the child or the adult and must realize that the most important contribution toward his growth lies in social experiences, community participation, vocational planning and exploration; in status-giving activities, privileges, and responsibilities; in thinking through the potentialities, needs, and aspirations which he possesses as a sexually mature person, as a family member, as a citizen, and as an individual with inner resources; in searching with him for values and standards acceptable by society and yet distinctly his own. In these terms each aspect of the curriculum can be utilized to greatest advantage and the prolongation of youth relieved of some of its devastating consequences."

This book is not light reading and presumably is not intended for lay readers. It is written in a scholarly, logical manner and must be read with care, particularly the section concerned with the theory of adolescent development. It is probable that the theory and techniques discussed in this book will not have much immediate effect on the reconstruction of the secondary school curriculum and practices, but in time they will undoubtedly receive the same approval and respect as have the many other valuable suggestions which have come out of the studies of the Commission on Secondary School Curriculum.

C. ELWOOD DRAKE

Newton, Massachusetts

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